DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 447 706 FL 026 483

AUTHOR Calderon, Margarita; Carreon, Argelia
TITLE A Two-Way Bilingual Program: Promise, Practice, and Precautions.
INSTITUTION Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk, Baltimore, MD.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.
REPORT NO RR-47
PUB DATE 2000-09-00
NOTE 66p.
CONTRACT R-117-D40005
AVAILABLE FROM For full text: http://: www.csos.jhu.edu.
PUB TYPE Reports - Research (143)
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Bilingual Education Programs; Change Strategies; Classroom Techniques; Educational Change; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); Foreign Countries; Language Minorities; Multicultural Education; *Politics of Education; Professional Development; *Program Evaluation; Second Language Instruction; Second Language Learning; Spanish Speaking; Student Evaluation; *Teacher Education
IDENTIFIERS Mexico; *Proposition 227 (California 1998); Two Way Bilingual Education; Vygotsky (Lev S)

ABSTRACT

In spite of political pressure, bilingualism is emerging as a strategy for improving the academic achievement of all students. Two-way bilingual or dual-language programs integrate language-minority and language-majority students for instruction in two languages. Site-based decision making has enabled schools in cities that border with Mexico to implement two-way bilingual programs in which minority and majority students can become bilingual, biliterate, and bicultural. Complex instruction for the binational context requires that teachers combine a profound knowledge of subject matter with a wide repertoire of teaching strategies, states of the art knowledge about learning theory, cognition, pedagogy, curriculum, technology, and assessment. The education of language minority students is dependent on the degree to which these children have access to instruction that is challenging yet comprehensible. This report focuses on one effort to implement comprehensive, two-way bilingual programs in four schools. The goals of this project included the following: (1) to document the design, implementation, and program adjustments of the two-way bilingual program; (2) to analyze teacher performance and professional development in the context of implementing complex change; (3) to identify the pedagogical variables that facilitate or impede learning through two languages simultaneously; (4) to identify the most promising program features and the school structures for program implementation, and the role of the principal within these. The report accomplishes this in four successive sections, followed by a fifth summary section discussing implications and recommendations. (Contains 133 references.) (KFT)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

ED 447 706

FL

CRESPAR

A TWO-WAY BILINGUAL PROGRAM

Promise, Practice, and Precautions

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

Margarita Calderón
Argelia Carreón

Report No. 47 / September 2000

FUNDED BY
OFFICE OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND IMPROVEMENT
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY & HOWARD UNIVERSITY

CENTER FOR RESEARCH ON THE EDUCATION OF STUDENTS PLACED AT RISK

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

A TWO-WAY BILINGUAL PROGRAM
Promise, Practice, and Precautions

Margarita Calderón

Johns Hopkins University

Argelia Carreón

Success for All Foundation

Report No. 47

September 2000

Published by the Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk (CRESPAR), supported as a national research and development center by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI), U.S. Department of Education (R-117-D40005). The opinions expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of OERI, and no official endorsement should be inferred. An on-line version of this report is available at our web site: www.csos.jhu.edu.

CRESPAR TECHNICAL REPORTS

1996

1. *The Talent Development High School: Essential Components*—V. LaPoint, W. Jordan, J.M. McPartland, D.P. Towns
2. *The Talent Development High School: Early Evidence of Impact on School Climate, Attendance, and Student Promotion*—J.M. McPartland, N. Legters, W. Jordan, E.L. McDill
3. *The Talent Development Middle School: Essential Components*—S. Madhere, D.J. Mac Iver
4. *The Talent Development Middle School: Creating a Motivational Climate Conducive to Talent Development in Middle Schools: Implementation and Effects of Student Team Reading*—D.J. Mac Iver, S.B. Plank
5. *Patterns of Urban Student Mobility and Local School Reform: Technical Report*—D. Kerbow
6. *Scaling Up: Lessons Learned in the Dissemination of Success for All*—R.E. Slavin, N.A. Madden
7. *School Family Community Partnerships and the Academic Achievement of African American, Urban Adolescents*—M.G. Sanders
8. *Asian American Students At Risk: A Literature Review*—S.-F. Su

1997

9. *Reducing Talent Loss: The Impact of Information, Guidance, and Actions on Postsecondary Enrollment*—S.B. Plank, W.J. Jordan
10. *Effects of Bilingual Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition on Students Transitioning from Spanish to English Reading*—M. Calderon, R. Hertz-Lazarowitz, G. Ivory, R.E. Slavin
11. *Effective Programs for Latino Students in Elementary and Middle Schools*—O.S. Fashola, R.E. Slavin, M. Calderon, R. Duran
12. *Detracking in a Racially Mixed Urban High School*—R. Cooper
13. *Building Effective School Family Community Partnerships in a Large Urban School District*—M.G. Sanders
14. *Volunteer Tutoring Programs: A Review of Research on Achievement Outcomes*—B.A. Wasik
15. *Working Together to Become Proficient Readers: Early Impact of the Talent Development Middle School's Student Team Literature Program*—D.J. Mac Iver, S.B. Plank, R. Balfanz
16. *Success for All: Exploring the Technical, Normative, Political, and Socio-Cultural Dimensions of Scaling Up*—R. Cooper, R.E. Slavin, N.A. Madden
17. *MathWings: Early Indicators of Effectiveness*—N.A. Madden, R.E. Slavin, K. Simons
18. *Parental Involvement in Students' Education During Middle School and High School*—S. Catsambis, J.E. Garland

1998

19. *Success for All/Exito Para Todos: Effects on the Reading Achievement of Students Acquiring English*—R.E. Slavin, N.A. Madden
20. *Implementing a Highly Specified Curricular, Instructional, and Organizational School Design in a High-Poverty, Urban Elementary School: Three Year Results*—B. McHugh, S. Stringfield
21. *The Talent Development Middle School: An Elective Replacement Approach to Providing Extra Help in Math—The CATAMA Program (Computer and Team Assisted Mathematics Acceleration)*—D.J. Mac Iver, R. Balfanz, S.B. Plank
22. *School/Family/Community Partnerships in Middle And High Schools: From Theory to Practice*—M.G. Sanders, J.L. Epstein
23. *Sources of Talent Loss Among High-Achieving Poor Students*—W.J. Jordan, S.B. Plank
24. *Review of Extended Day and After School Programs and Their Effectiveness*—O.S. Fashola
25. *Teachers' Appraisals of Talent Development Middle School Training, Materials, and Student Progress*—[illegible]

1998 (cont'd)

26. *Exploring the Dynamics of Resilience in an Elementary School*—S.M. Nettles, F.P. Robinson
27. *Expanding Knowledge of Parental Involvement in Secondary Education: Effects on High School Academic Success*—S. Catsambis
28. *Socio-Cultural and Within-School Factors That Effect the Quality of Implementation of School-Wide Programs*—R. Cooper

1999

29. *How Students Invest Their Time Out of School: Effects on School Engagement, Perceptions of Life Chances, and Achievement*—W.J. Jordan, S.M. Nettles
30. *Disseminating Success For All: Lessons for Policy and Practice*—R.E. Slavin, N.A. Madden
31. *Small Learning Communities Meet School-to-Work: Whole-School Restructuring for Urban Comprehensive High Schools*—N.E. Legters
32. *Family Partnerships with High Schools: The Parents' Perspective*—M.G. Sanders, J.L. Epstein, L. Connors-Tadros
33. *Grade Retention: Prevalence, Timing, and Effects*—N. Karweit
34. *Preparing Educators for School/Family/Community Partnerships: Results of a National Survey of Colleges and Universities*—J.L. Epstein, M.G. Sanders, L.A. Clark
35. *How Schools Choose Externally Developed Reform Designs*—A. Datnow
36. *Roots & Wings: Effects of Whole-School Reform on Student Achievement*—R.E. Slavin, N.A. Madden
37. *Teacher Collaboration in a Restructuring Urban High School*—N.E. Legters
38. *The Child First Authority After-School Program: A Descriptive Evaluation*—O.S. Fashola
39. *MathWings: Effects on Student Mathematics Performance*—N.A. Madden, R.E. Slavin, K. Simons
40. *Core Knowledge Curriculum: Three-Year Analysis of Implementation and Effects in Five Schools*—B. McHugh, S. Stringfield
41. *Success for All/Roots & Wings: Summary of Research on Achievement Outcomes*—R.E. Slavin, N.A. Madden

2000

42. *The Role of Cultural Factors in School Relevant Cognitive Functioning: Synthesis of Findings on Cultural Contexts, Cultural Orientations, and Individual Differences*—V.W. Boykin, C.T. Bailey
43. *The Role of Cultural Factors in School Relevant Cognitive Functioning: Description of Home Environmental Factors, Cultural Orientations, and Learning Preferences*—V.W. Boykin, C.T. Bailey
44. *Classroom Cultural Ecology: The Dynamics of Classroom Life in Schools Serving Low-Income African American Children*—C.M. Ellison, V.W. Boykin, D.P. Towns, V. Stokes
45. *An "Inside" Look at Success for All: A Qualitative Study of Implementation and Teaching and Learning*—A. Datnow, M. Castellano
46. *Lessons for Scaling Up: Evaluations of the Talent Development Middle School's Student Team Literature Program*—S.B. Plank, E. Young
47. *A Two Way Bilingual Program: Promise, Practice, and Precautions*—M. Calderon, Argelia Carreon
48. *Four Models of School Improvement: Successes and Challenges in Reforming Low-Performing, High-Poverty Title I Schools*—G.D. Borman, E. Rachuba, A. Datnow, M. Alberg, M. Mac Iver, S. Stringfield, S. Ross
49. *National Evaluation of Core Knowledge Sequence Implementation: Final Report*—S. Stringfield, A. Datnow, G. Borman, E. Rachuba (in press)
50. *Core Knowledge Curriculum: Five Year Analysis of Implementation and Effects in Five Maryland Schools*—M.A. Mac Iver, S. Stringfield, B. [illegible]ugh (in press)

THE CENTER

Every child has the capacity to succeed in school and in life. Yet far too many children, especially those from poor and minority families, are placed at risk by school practices that are based on a sorting paradigm in which some students receive high-expectations instruction while the rest are relegated to lower quality education and lower quality futures. The sorting perspective must be replaced by a "talent development" model that asserts that all children are capable of succeeding in a rich and demanding curriculum with appropriate assistance and support.

The mission of the Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk (CRESPAR) is to conduct the research, development, evaluation, and dissemination needed to transform schooling for students placed at risk. The work of the Center is guided by three central themes — ensuring the success of all students at key development points, building on students' personal and cultural assets, and scaling up effective programs — and conducted through research and development programs in the areas of early and elementary studies; middle and high school studies; school, family, and community partnerships; and systemic supports for school reform, as well as a program of institutional activities.

CRESPAR is organized as a partnership of Johns Hopkins University and Howard University, and supported by the National Institute on the Education of At-Risk Students (At-Risk Institute), one of five institutes created by the Educational Research, Development, Dissemination and Improvement Act of 1994 and located within the Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) at the U.S. Department of Education. The At-Risk Institute supports a range of research and development activities designed to improve the education of students at risk of educational failure because of limited English proficiency, poverty, race, geographic location, or economic disadvantage.

ABSTRACT

In spite of political pressure, bilingualism is emerging as a strategy for improving the academic achievement of all students. Two-way bilingual or dual-language programs integrate language-minority and language-majority students for instruction in two languages — the native language of the language minority students (usually Spanish) and English. With the renewed emphasis on comprehensive school reform by state educational agencies, and an emerging interest in charter schools, dual-language programs may be the right choice for some schools.

Site-based decision making has enabled schools in cities that border on Mexico to implement two-way bilingual programs in which minority and majority students can become bilingual, biliterate, and bicultural. Teams of teachers and administrators in these progressive schools are looking for ways to develop student-centered programs, which are integrated with whole-school efforts to improve and enrich instruction for all students.

The students that schools are preparing along the U.S.-Mexico border must be able to manage complexity, find and use resources, and continually learn new technologies, approaches, and occupations. The need for global and binational educational emphasis has brought out the need for "cultural literacy" and "multiliteracies."

Complex instruction for the binational context requires that teachers combine a profound knowledge of subject matter with a wide repertoire of teaching strategies, state-of-the-art knowledge about learning theory, cognition, pedagogy, curriculum, technology, and assessment, and ample knowledge of the students' language, socio-cultural, and developmental background. The teacher must also be as proficient as possible in two languages.

As two-way bilingual or dual-language programs begin to flourish throughout the nation, special care must be taken to give the teachers in such programs high-quality learning opportunities, support, freedom within a well structured program, and resources to do their jobs well.

The education of language-minority students is dependent on the degree to which these children have access to instruction that is challenging yet comprehensible. They need an accepting school and social environment that promotes academic achievement and values cultural and language diversity. This report focuses on one effort to implement comprehensive, two-way bilingual programs in four schools. It describes the teachers' levels of commitment to change and the relationship between this commitment and the quality of implementation and impact on students and teachers.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to acknowledge Dr. Robert Slavin for his support of this project, as well as the teachers and administrators in the El Paso Independent School District. The authors also thank and remember John Hollifield, whose encouragement, critical reading, and exceptional editing made a difference in all Center reports.

INTRODUCTION

In spite of political pressure, bilingualism is emerging as a strategy for improving the academic achievement of all students. Even after Proposition 227 in California, which is intended to reduce or eliminate transitional bilingual programs in which students are taught for some period of time in their native language and then transitioned to English-only instruction, major districts such as Los Angeles Unified and San Francisco Unified are now more actively planning to increase their two-way bilingual programs. Two-way bilingual or dual-language programs integrate language-minority and language-majority students for instruction in two languages — the native language of the language-minority students (usually Spanish) and English (August & Hakuta, 1997). These programs are gaining recognition in other parts of the United States as well. "U.S. schools now have clear achievement data that point to the most powerful models of effective schooling for English learners. What is astounding is that these same programs are also dynamic models for school reform for all students" (Collier, 1997). With the renewed emphasis on comprehensive school reform by state educational agencies, and an emerging interest in charter schools, magnet schools, and other schools of choice, dual-language programs may be the right choice for some schools.

Site-based decision making has enabled schools in cities that border on Mexico to implement two-way bilingual programs in which minority and majority students can become bilingual, biliterate, and bicultural. In contrast to traditional transitional bilingual approaches, two-way models obviate such issues as "when to transition from one language to the other," "when students should exit the bilingual program," and "how to conform to district policies on curriculum and academic accountability." Teams of teachers and administrators in these progressive schools are looking for ways to develop student-centered programs, which are integrated with whole-school efforts to improve and enrich instruction for all students.

The students that schools are preparing along the U.S.-Mexico border must be able to manage complexity, find and use resources, and continually learn new technologies, approaches, and occupations. The need for a global and binational educational emphasis has brought out the need for "cultural literacy" and "multiliteracies." In contrast to the maquiladoras, factories owned by American companies in border areas that hire large numbers of low-skilled Mexican workers, the border economy is increasingly requiring employees to frame problems, design their own tasks, use new technologies, evaluate outcomes, and cooperate in finding novel solutions to problems. Because border city students live in bicultural or binational communities, they must also understand and evaluate multidimensional issues that will continue to impact their bilingual society. As Luke (1996) reminds us, the 21st century citizen will work in media-, text-, and symbol-saturated environments. For millions of students, these will also be bilingual or multilingual environments.

Complex instruction for the binational context requires that teachers combine a profound knowledge of subject matter with a wide repertoire of teaching strategies; state-of-the-art knowledge about learning theory, cognition, pedagogy, curriculum, technology, and assessment; and ample knowledge of the students' language, socio-cultural, and developmental background. The teacher must also be as proficient as possible in two languages. Teaching for such goals goes beyond the standard teacher-proof curriculum for traditional bilingual teaching. Teachers must now undertake tasks they have never before been called to accomplish (Calderón, 1996).

Challenges and Issues

As two-way bilingual or dual-language programs begin to flourish throughout the nation, special care must be taken to give the teachers in such programs high-quality, useful learning opportunities, support, freedom within a well structured program, and resources to do their job well. Until now, bilingual teachers have been pretty much left to their own devices when it comes to bilingual instructional practices. Fads come and go and bilingual teachers try them for a year or two, or simply adapt pieces of a model. Accountability has been rare. Bilingual program evaluations, like other kinds of "official knowledge" (Apple, 1993), have been mediated by a complex political economy and the institutions it serves, and have been influenced to point in only certain directions. Therefore, bilingual teacher classroom performance has rarely been considered, analyzed, or held accountable.

Accountability has also taken a back seat to another sensitive factor in bilingual education — the shortage of bilingual teachers. Because schools are desperate to fill bilingual teaching positions, the selection, on-the-job preparation, and teacher evaluation systems have failed to consider quality and accountability in the practice of teaching and learning. Bilingual teachers still feel segregated from the rest of school-wide initiatives and caught in "us versus them" school conflicts. Because teachers have been so isolated, they have settled comfortably into their own ways of teaching. We often hear, "We don't want to do that because..." "...there are no materials in Spanish" "...it's not in our curriculum plan" "...it's not whole language" "...it's too much work!" When we combine all these factors, we begin to see why there is so much student failure and why bilingual programs receive so much criticism. Their implementation has been subverted in most schools.

These sensitive issues are confounded with other issues such as the historical politics of identity of minority teachers; the feelings that the words "bilingual education" evoke in the public at large; as well as the limited amount of research on effective instruction for bilingual settings. When we compound all this with the state of the art on professional development and

school reform initiatives, it is no wonder that students and teachers fail in many bilingual programs.

Historically, bilingual education has been a socio-political issue fueled by theories that seek to explain low academic performance and high dropout rates of minority students, especially for those of Mexican descent. The education of language-minority students is constantly embroiled in controversy. The use of languages other than English for instructional purposes is perceived in many quarters as an affront to core American values. The browning of America and future population projections are often highlighted in an attempt to bring the need for systemic and attitudinal reform to the forefront. It is often espoused that such reform must come from within the school and its community and not from the outside. However, most reform projects limit their efforts, budgets, and focus when it comes to language-minority students and their teachers. It is not only a language issue but also a comprehensive approach to bilingual/ESL program implementation and change in attitudes that needs to be found.

The education of language-minority students is dependent on the degree to which these children have access to instruction that is challenging yet comprehensible. They need an accepting school and social environment, which promotes academic achievement and values cultural and language diversity. The Lau v. Nichols decision of 1974 affirmed a student's right to educational opportunity via appropriate instructional services. To this day the search for the most effective means of accomplishing this goal for language-minority students continues. On the one hand, earlier studies by Hakuta (1990), Cummins (1981), Krashen (1982), Ramirez (1992), and Collier (1995) conclude that long-term primary language instruction complemented with quality instruction in English is the most effective means for language-minority students to attain academic success. Later studies by August and Hakuta (1997), Calderón, Hertz-Lazarowitz and Slavin (1997), and Slavin and Madden (1996) find that a comprehensive approach to school reform is necessary to implement quality bilingual or English-as-a-Second-Language programs for language-minority students. This report focuses on one effort to implement comprehensive two-way bilingual programs in four schools, their level of commitment, and the relationship between this commitment and effects of students and teachers.

Why Dual-Language Instruction?

Preliminary studies on the outcomes of two-way bilingual or dual-language programs (Christian & Whitcher, 1995; Collier, 1994) showed great promise. The rationale for these programs is not only to improve academic achievement in two languages but also to enhance cross-cultural understanding by increasing positive interactions in the classroom. In the

Lambert and Calzabon (1994) study of the Amigos Two-Way bilingual program in Cambridge, Massachusetts, students in the program formed close friendships with members of both their own and the other group. In a national review of two-way bilingual programs, Mahrer and Christian (1993) found that when comparison groups are available, evaluations typically show that English-language learners in two-way programs outperform those in other programs.

Despite the fairly elaborate theoretical justification for two-way programs, there has been little uniformity in the programs that have been implemented (August & Hakuta, 1997). There are variations of time spent on each language. Some start out providing 90% of instruction in Spanish the first year and gradually add English until both languages are used 50% of classroom time in third or fourth grades. Others call for a 50-50 balance from kindergarten on. Programs vary on their student selection, assessment, and placement practices, and their policies for admitting students. Perhaps the largest variations exist on the instructional practices for teaching in both languages. These practices go hand in hand with the variations of professional development practices that teachers are offered to support the implementation of these programs.

Guadalupe Valdés (1997) raises other issues that might underlie the purposes and impact of two-way programs. Contrary to the stated purpose and the perceived benefit for all students, she cautions that issues of language and power must also be considered. Is language an important tool that can be used by both the powerful and the powerless in their struggle to gain or maintain power, as perceived by Fairclough (1992, 1998) and Tollefson (1991), or a means by which the powerful remain in power? Valdés reports that teachers and administrators of a dual-language immersion program have shared with her concerns about disappointing Spanish-language and reading test scores of Mexican-origin students. If a school's program results indicate that English dominant students outperform Spanish-speakers on Spanish tests, for example, this merits careful analysis so that the issue can be addressed. Educators must continue to pursue quality education so that the beneficiaries of two-way programs are clearly both language groups. Nothing else should be acceptable.

Educators working in the field of bilingual education soon learn that their philosophy and commitment to bilingual education are often questioned and their resolve tested by those in power. They see themselves as the only advocates for students, their culture, and their language. The Accelerated Two-Way Bilingual program was designed to provide a better opportunity for equity in education for the language-minority student in which both language groups would serve as a resource to the other. It was designed as a win-win, value-added program in which both groups would add a second language in the process of attaining an education. It was also hoped that equity in educational access would lead to equity in power and status and more commitment from mainstream teachers and administrators. The other

important factor which the project wanted to address was the roles that the principal and the district administration play in the implementation, support, and endorsement of the program.

According to Christian (1996) and Lindholm (1990), eight criteria are essential to the success of two-way bilingual programs:

1. Programs should provide a minimum of four to six years of bilingual instruction to participating students.
2. The focus of instruction should be the same core academic curriculum that students in other programs experience.
3. Optimal language input (input that is comprehensible, interesting, and of sufficient quantity) as well as opportunities for output should be provided to students, including quality language arts instruction in both languages.
4. The target (non-English) language should be used for instruction a minimum of 50% of the time (to a maximum of 90% in the early grades) and English should be used at least 10% at first, then increased to 50%.
5. The program should provide an additive bilingual environment where all students have the opportunity to learn a second language while continuing to develop their native language proficiency.
6. Classrooms should include a balance of students from the target language and English backgrounds who participate in the instructional activities together.
7. Positive interactions among students should be facilitated by the use of strategies such as cooperative learning.
8. Characteristics of effective schools should be incorporated into programs, such as qualified personnel and home-school collaboration.

An important instructional principle is that lessons are never repeated nor translated in the second language to avoid having students tune out the less familiar language and wait for instruction in their favored language. Instead, concepts taught in one language are reinforced across the two languages in a spiraling curriculum. Teachers might alternate the language of instruction by theme or subject area, by time of day, by day of the week, or by the week. If two teachers are teaching, each teacher is responsible for instruction in one of the languages (Ovando & Collier, 1998).

The Context of the Study

The El Paso Independent School District (EPISD), with 64,966 students, is the largest of 12 districts in the city of El Paso, Texas. According to the National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education, the district ranks 13 in a list of 20 school districts in the nation with the largest numbers of enrolled limited English proficient students. EPISD reflects its border location with a student population that is 72% Hispanic. Approximately 15,000 students are served in bilingual education in prekindergarten to grade five and English-as-a-second-language programs in grades 6-12.

El Paso has a population of more than 700,000, making it the largest city on the U.S.-Mexico border and the fifth largest in the state, but one of the most financially impoverished. With more than a million people living in Juárez, Mexico, the El Paso-Juárez twin cities are the largest on the 2000-mile border from San Diego to Brownsville. For 400 years the history of these twin cities has been influenced by the clashing of cultures, the shifting of geographical boundaries, the confrontation of ideologies, and the impact of immigration into the United States, as well as the mixing of languages, the blending of cultures, the settlement of long-term boundary disputes, and the economic interdependence of two vastly disparate financial systems. The two cities are permanently linked: so different yet so close, whose people sometimes live in one and work in the other, whose families often branch out on both sides of the border, and whose environment, health, and infrastructure are taxed by the challenges of a growing population and the impact of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) (Sharp, 1998). The two must collaborate to profit from the diverse resources of their people and to meet the challenges of the border.

Before beginning its bilingual pilots, the school district had been implementing three other approaches to bilingual education:

1. A traditional transitional model which included language and content instruction in Spanish, as well as English as a Second Language (ESL);
2. A late-exit model which included a native cognitive language development component (NLCD), English language arts, and sheltered English content instruction; and
3. A special language immersion program within the monolingual classroom, which provided limited instruction in Spanish, ESL, and content instruction in English in schools with low enrollments of students with limited English proficiency.

Some of these programs included monolingual English students in their bilingual classrooms. However, as with most bilingual programs, it was difficult for one teacher to serve two groups of children with extremely different needs within the same class and provide

quality instruction for all. Nevertheless, it was evident that students learning English benefitted greatly from a variety of English language models, especially their peers. Unfortunately, they may also have learned that Spanish and the people who spoke Spanish were not held in high regard. The early promises of NAFTA and the increasing need for bilingual skills in the workplace created new interest among Anglophone parents for their children to learn Spanish. This led to support for creation of two-way bilingual programs in which English speakers could learn Spanish while Spanish speakers learned English.

When the two-way program was initiated, many of the English speakers seeking the program were Hispanics. These were the children of parents who didn't speak Spanish because when they went to the El Paso schools or other U.S. schools they were punished for speaking Spanish. They grew up convinced that Spanish was a liability rather than a resource. These parents now want their children to regain the Spanish language and cultural pride they once lost. Unfortunately, this sense of shame and loss of language and culture leads other Hispanic parents to fight desperately against bilingual programs. Although two-way bilingual education may not be the solution to a history of social inequalities, it can be a vehicle for reform which individual schools or school districts can implement, study, and continue to improve.

The Initial School Sites

The El Paso Accelerated Two-Way Bilingual program was initially implemented in two K-5 elementary schools. The two-way bilingual classrooms reflect the ethnic and language make-up of the community. One school is predominantly upper middle class, with the Hispanic and Anglo populations almost 50% each. The other school has more than 80% of the students qualifying for free or reduced-price school lunch. The Hispanic student population is approximately 80%; however, about half of these students are English dominant.

Classes at each grade level include approximately 15 Spanish-proficient and 15 English-proficient students. At each grade level, instruction during the day is to occur 50% of the time in English and 50% in Spanish. Therefore, students are placed in cooperative learning teams of four, where two are the Spanish experts and two are the English experts. A bilingual and a monolingual teacher staff each class.

The Second-Phase Sites

At the third school, only about one fourth of the students qualify for Title I, although it has an 80% Hispanic population. This school began its two-way bilingual program two years later, when the curriculum and the structural components had been completed. They implemented it for one year, then adopted Success for All (SFA; Slavin & Madden, in press) as their

reading/language arts component in the lower grades. The teachers are partnered but each has her own classroom and students change classrooms for SFA.

The fourth school is a Title I school with about 90% Hispanic students in a high-poverty area. This school began by implementing Success for All the first two years, then began implementing the two-way program one grade level per year. Teachers are partnered but each has her/his classroom and students change classrooms for SFA.

Purpose of the Study

The goals of the multilevel action-research project in the schools were to:

1. Document the program design, implementation, and program adjustments of the two-way bilingual program;
2. Analyze teacher performance and professional development in the context of implementing complex change;
3. Identify the pedagogical variables that facilitate or impede learning through two languages simultaneously; and
4. Identify the most promising program features and the school structures for program implementation, and the role of the principal within these.

This report synthesizes four years of formative and summative data on these four topics. **SECTION 1** describes the program features through their process of development and implementation. **SECTION 2** discusses pedagogy — the key features that facilitated or obstructed learning and achievement. **SECTION 3** describes the issues of teachers' transfer of knowledge from the professional development program into the classroom. **SECTION 4** discusses the role of the principal and implementation results. **SECTION 5** concludes with implications and recommendations to schools wishing to implement two-way bilingual programs.

METHODOLOGY

Quantitative and ethnographic data were collected for the three-year study on teachers and their students. Quantitative data consisted of teacher, student, and administrator questionnaires and comparison of baseline data with three-year results for (1) the students' language development; (2) student achievement; and (3) the teachers' professional accomplishments.

Student Assessments Used

The Idea Oral Proficiency Test (IPT I) was used to measure oral proficiency in both Spanish and English. The purpose of the test was to designate students as Limited English/Spanish Speaking (LES/LSS) or fluent English/Spanish Speaking (FES/FSS) for placement in the program. The May 1992/93 results were used as base data. The test was administered yearly.

The Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS), a criterion-referenced test mandated by the state of Texas, was used to measure academic progress in reading, writing, and math in English for grades three and five.

Portfolios of student work were assessed and reviewed on an ongoing basis and were used as a tool for instructional improvement and staff development workshops. The portfolios were used to determine the progress of students on their development of writing skills throughout the year. Student portfolios were transferred with the students from year to year.

Non-Project Comparison Group

Limited English proficient students (Spanish dominant students) and Anglo or Hispanic English-dominant students in experimental two-way bilingual classrooms were compared to equivalent students in traditional bilingual control classrooms. In the first two years of the study, 250 students in pilot classrooms were compared to 250 students in control classrooms in the same schools. After the program was implemented school-wide, whole-school academic performance was compared to similar schools in the district. When the program reached implementation in 12 schools, the schools' populations were measured through the Texas Education Agency's rankings according to their performance on TAAS.

Ethnographic Studies

Ethnographic data, analyzed in light of the talent development perspective (Erickson, 1988; Mehan, 1992; Moll, 1992; Slavin & Boykin, 1995), consisted of field notes, interviews, video taping of the TLC sessions, professional development events, and pre- and post-video recordings of teachers applying innovations in their classrooms.

The study's framework is ecocultural theory (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988) and Erickson's interpretative fieldwork approach to understand how meaning is developed and sustained through daily interaction, in which activity setting plays a prominent role in understanding complex ecologies. Activity settings are analyzed through five elements: (1) participants, (2) tasks and activities, (3) scripts for conduct, (4) goals, and (5) beliefs. The separate functions are linked with

one another in activity (Vygotsky, 1987). Students and teachers are collaborators in the data gathering by co-constructing the ethnographies of their activity, goals, and beliefs in their teaching and in their collegial teams.

Critical discourse analysis is used to analyze how knowledge, power, and identity are constructed (Foucault, 1980) within the TLCs and during the team teachers' instructional activities in the classrooms. The combination of classroom and staff development as integrated units of analysis helped us to study the elementary two-way bilingual and high school classrooms from an etic (pedagogical and socio-political) perspective and an emic (the construction of discourse in a teaching or learning situation) perspective.

In the Two-Way Bilingual Elementary study, the discourse analyses were used to bring out the values, beliefs, and social practices of Anglo and Hispanic teachers sharing one classroom. Because discourses can never be "neutral" or value free, they always reflect ideologies, systems of values, beliefs, and social practices (Fairclough, 1989; Foucault, 1972). Taken together, these complementary ways of exploring how instructional knowledge is "talked into being" (Green & Dixon, 1993) helped us to understand the professional growth of teachers.

Questions for the Two-Way Bilingual Study

How do teachers construct "common knowledge" of what a two-way bilingual program should be? What is the valuation of particular discourses, subjectivities, and practices in Spanish and English within each classroom? What are the particular social relationships of power, which are sanctioned and encouraged among students? Does Spanish or English receive more or less status, or are they equal in status? How are particular spoken and written practices assembled, ranging from how to divide the day's instructional time into Spanish and English blocks to the types of activities teachers structure during Spanish and/or English blocks?

Questions for the Two-Way Schools' Teachers Learning Community Sessions

Teachers Learning Communities (TLCs) (Calderón, in press) are opportunities for mainstream-bilingual teacher teams to meet regularly to study their instructional practices, adjust and solve multiple problems, take risks, share student successes, analyze student work, and continue their personal and professional growth.

What are the particular social relationships of power between mainstream and minority teachers? How do mainstream and bilingual teachers develop long-lasting profound and

meaningful partnerships in two-way bilingual contexts? How do teachers contribute to each other's talent and professional growth?

Teacher performance and development were analyzed through researcher-teacher joint ethnographies. The ethnographies focused on ways that teachers learned about their new skills and abilities to construct, control, and function within bilingual texts. Text is defined as language in use (Halliday & Hassan, 1985). Texts are moments of intersubjectivity — the social and discursive relations between speakers, readers, and listeners. Readers, listeners, speakers, and writers thus depend on intertextuality, repeated and reiterated wordings, statements, and themes that appear in different texts (Fairclough, 1992). This approach to critical discourse analysis helped teachers generate agency for the program, to acquire a sense of ownership and commitment. It also gave teachers the tools to see how texts represent the social environment, the power struggles, and the power of two languages at work.

Participants

The participants in the three years of the study were 24 teachers from two schools, twelve at each school. Half were bilingual and half monolingual. All bilingual teachers were Hispanic; all monolingual teachers were white Anglo. Each year, classroom ethnographies were compiled for the 24 teachers through all-day observations, twice in the fall and twice in the spring, by trained observers. All teachers were arbitrarily videotaped for an hour at randomly selected times during the day. Six of the teachers were observed all day, for a whole week. The teachers also responded to a twenty-question, essay-type questionnaire asking them to elaborate on their teaching practices, team-teaching experiences, and perceived problems and successes. The group of 24 teachers was also observed and videotaped once a month during their two-hour Teachers Learning Community (TLC) sessions.

The teachers themselves conducted ethnographies in the second year of the project. They analyzed shifts in use of Spanish and English; instructional patterns for each language; students' social relationships of power; and teacher and student participant structures.

SECTION 1
PROGRAM FEATURES AND IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS

Pre-Implementation Phase

A meeting was scheduled for the principals and key teachers to meet with the bilingual education program coordinator and the director for curriculum and instruction to discuss a local model that would:

1. Comply with state regulations;
2. Utilize best knowledge and practice;
3. Be designed in collaboration with the school community;
4. Result in reform of the school's organization, curriculum, and instruction;
5. Improve teaching practices and promote high student achievement; and
6. Be accepted by parents, teachers, and students as an enrichment program.

After studying the latest thinking in the field of bilingual education and prominent models for reform, the group decided to design a two-way bilingual program, which would be an integral part of each school's vision. The next step was to identify a site-based decision model for whole-school involvement in the design and implementation.

One of the most prominent models for facilitating school restructuring available at that time was the Accelerated Schools model developed by Henry Levin (Levin, 1987). This model provides a process for systemic reform consistent with site-based management and promotes professional development and a process for continuous self-renewal. The model is anchored in a set of practices based upon a coherent philosophy and principles which seek to "create for all children the dream school we would want for our own children" (Levin, 1987, p. 15). The transformation of an Accelerated School is embodied in three central principles: (1) unity of purpose, (2) empowerment with responsibility, and (3) building on strengths. It views all children as learners who benefit from the same approaches as those used in classes for students identified as gifted and talented and promotes acceleration rather than remediation for at-risk students. When a school adopts this process and the school faculty and staff are coached during the implementation process, the school becomes a learning community empowered to learn and seek new ways of addressing challenges.

The philosophies from the Accelerated Schools model and the two-way bilingual program were combined into the following principles for the development of the instructional component:

1. Oral and written language are acquired naturally in a supportive environment of social interaction in which language is used for a variety of functions. Language is learned by using it in everyday situations in and outside school.

2. Oral language is developed and progresses through stages of acquisition which begin with a silent period and progress through different stages of comprehension and fluency. During the first stage, understanding is usually demonstrated through physical response or appropriate behaviors.

3. Limited proficiency in English does not indicate limited learning potential. Instruction must be intensive, challenging, and actively engage the student's interest.

4. Learners construct their own knowledge by figuring out how things work (the code, the system, and the organization) and creating a logical mental scheme of this information relative to their prior experience and their general scheme of personal knowledge.

5. Learning involves the application of a problem-solving approach to situations, events, or the means by which the learning itself takes place.

6. Language is the main vehicle by which academic learning takes place. It is a tool for learning and expression of thought.

7. Parental involvement must provide opportunities for the interaction of parents with the school program and opportunities to actively assist and support their children's learning.

8. High learning expectations by teachers, parents, and students create a productive learning environment in which students succeed and as a result are more confident and productive.

9. Instruction in the history and cultural heritage of the student's home language and that of the U.S. instills confidence as well as a positive self-identity and promotes multicultural understanding.

10. Reading and writing are related socio-linguistic processes, which occur across the curriculum and are integral components of thinking and learning.

11. Collaborative and cooperative learning experiences facilitate these processes, especially in a classroom with students who have different levels of language proficiency.

Program Goals, Design, and Instructional Practice

Three major decisions were made which guided the goals, program design, and instructional practice for the Accelerated Two-Way Bilingual Education Program.

1. The eleven principles for the development of the instructional design would guide curriculum and instruction.
2. The program would integrate students with limited English proficiency and fluent English speakers, and use a gifted and talented curriculum design.
3. The Accelerated Schools model would be used as the vehicle for systemic reform of the bilingual education program as an integral part of the instructional plan for all students in the school.
4. The curriculum would be delivered through the English, Spanish, and ESL versions of the Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition instructional models (BCIRC, CIRC) and Success for All (SFA).

The goals of the program generated from the joint meetings were:

- Student academic excellence in two languages (Spanish and English)
- Student high self-esteem
- Multicultural understanding among students, teachers, and parents.

Curriculum Development and Implementation

During the pre-implementation phase, training in curriculum writing was provided for the teachers in the project schools. The training culminated with the development of a two-week unit to use as a mini pilot in the spring. This activity served many purposes. First, it allowed the teachers to apply their new learnings and philosophy in practice. Second, it allowed the teachers to test these new learnings and philosophy through ample discussions — probing, questioning, studying more, and questioning more. At the end of the pilot phase, students and teachers were able to give concrete examples of the benefits of two-way bilingual education to parents. The instructional products, the comments of students and teachers, and the district support for the program were featured at a parent orientation and student preregistration meeting. Numerous questions from parents were answered during the orientation and new insights for program design were derived. Most importantly the parents reiterated their message — the program should be made available to everyone. The final framework of program components is described below.

Accelerated Two-Way Bilingual Education Program Features

• Two-Way Spanish & English Immersion

The program brings children of two language groups together to learn together in two languages. This is a 50/50 model in which Spanish is used as the language of instruction for 50% of the school day and English the other 50%. The objective is for both groups to become bilingual/biliterate and to attain a high level of multicultural understanding.

• Heterogeneous Grouping

Classes in grades 1 through 5 include approximately 15 students of each language group. Parents of both groups of children select to have their children in the program. Students of all levels of ability, learning styles, and academic background are included in each class of 30 students per grade.

• Team Teaching

A team of two teachers provides instruction for each class of 30 students. One of the teachers is bilingual and is primarily responsible for instruction in Spanish, and the other is monolingual and is responsible for the English instruction.

• Integrated Curriculum

In order to provide a coherent curriculum that facilitates instruction in a second language and maximizes learning in the first language, the curriculum is integrated. The instructional day is divided into two blocks designed to ensure language separation: Integrated Spanish Instruction (ISI) and Integrated English Instruction (IEI).

• Thematic Units Based on an Inquiry Approach to Learning

The curriculum is organized into interdisciplinary units that focus on real world topics. Each topic is stated as a question and the instruction is based on an inquiry approach.

• Cooperative Learning

The make-up of the classes demands a great amount of interactive activities that promote learning and second language acquisition as well as continued development of the first language. The use of cooperative learning is the basis of a two-way program. Cooperative learning is used extensively, and the Bilingual Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition model (Calderón et al.,1998) is used to develop Spanish and English literacy skills. Group Investigation (Sharan & Sharan, 1992) is used to facilitate inquiry and the integration of math, science, social studies, language arts, and fine arts.

• Teachers Learning Communities (TLCs)

TLCs (Calderón, in press) are opportunities for mainstream-bilingual teacher teams to meet regularly to study their instructional practices, adjust and solve multiple problems, take risks, share student successes, analyze student work, and continue their personal and professional growth.

• Intensive Professional Development

After an extensive initial effort, professional development is ongoing. Some training is provided for all teachers, while other training is based on interest and need.

• Parental Involvement

Parents are key to the success of their child's education. In a two-way program, they are an integral part of the program and the support system for their children's education.

• Excellence for All

An enrichment program utilizing two languages for instruction enhances cognitive development and demonstrates the additive value of bilingualism for all students.

• Global Educational Perspective

The Accelerated Two-Way Bilingual Education Program for kindergarten through fifth grade was designed to address the demands of a changing world and to profit from the intellectual power of bilingualism. The program based its thematic units on the following premise: As education takes a global perspective, it must prepare students to become leaders in a world of increasing knowledge, diversity, and technological advancements. To succeed as contributing members of society, today's youth must be critical thinkers, innovative problem solvers, and collaborative workers. They must also be multilingual and highly literate, well versed in the use of technology, mathematics, science, and the social sciences.

During the summer, curriculum guides for grades 1-5 were developed. The general theme for the curriculum selected was "Discovery." The teachers as a group selected program and grade level themes and each grade level embarked on the three-year journey to write units of study for their grade level. Figure 1 illustrates how the units incorporate the disciplines and corresponding learner outcomes in the process of seeking to answer a central question.

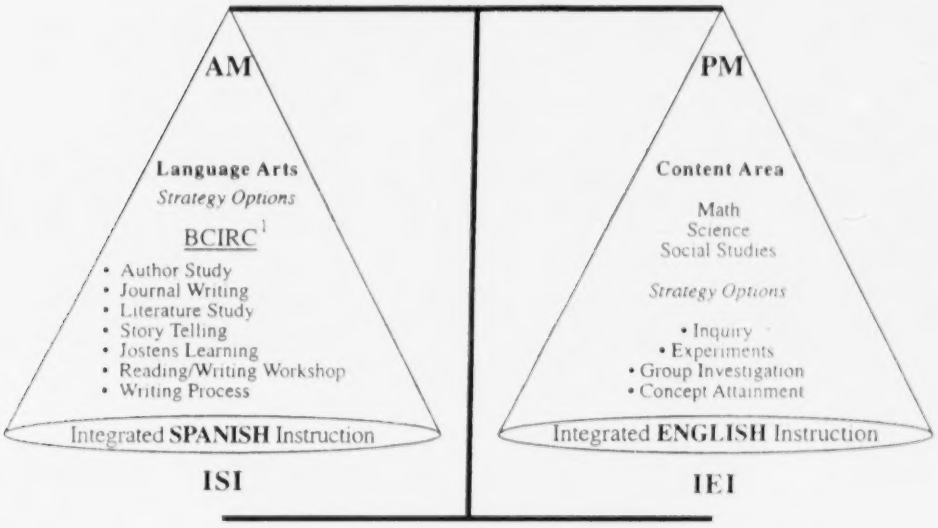
• Instruction by Teams

The delivery of instruction in a two-way model requires the balancing of content taught in each language and the careful scheduling and planning of lessons in which concepts and skills taught in one language are applied or extended in the other, but not introduced again. The additional challenge in this balancing feat is that each class has two teachers. The bilingual and monolingual teacher-team creates the infrastructure of the instructional design. Each class of 30 students has two teachers who teach as a team and collaborate so that all students benefit from their collective efforts and individual strengths. One of the teachers must be a bilingual teacher with strong skills in Spanish and well versed in second language development, cooperative learning, content knowledge, and instructional strategies. The other teacher must be a native English speaker who is prepared to teach with the same methodologies and also appreciates the benefits of bilingualism. Both teachers need to be extremely flexible.

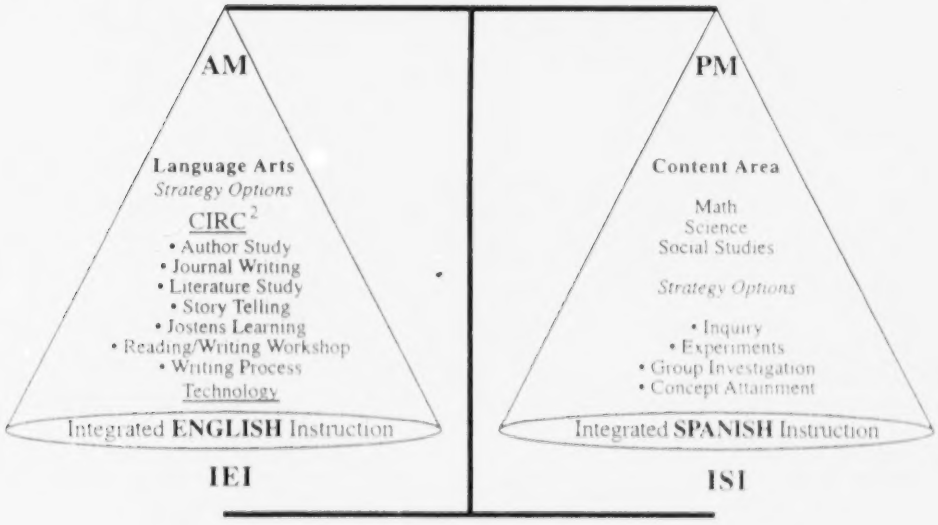
The team shares ideas, plans instruction, participates in TLCs and peer coaching, collaborates with parents and other teacher teams, and promotes multicultural understanding. Each teacher is responsible for the primary instruction of the appropriate component, Integrated Spanish Instruction or Integrated English Instruction, but both have mutually supportive roles during the entire instructional process. This organizational structure sends powerful messages to students who see first hand interaction and collaboration between adults who represent two languages and diverse socio-cultural backgrounds. It is also an asset for the teachers, who have an opportunity to learn from each other and collaborate to improve the instructional setting. Training also helps teachers enhance their partnership with parents because all parents (English-speaking and Spanish-speaking) are actively sought and tended to.

Figure 1

Two-Way Bilingual Education
Schedule A Used During First 1-2 Weeks Of A Unit



Schedule B Used During Following Weeks
(week 2 or 3 and 4) of a Unit



1. BCIRC = Bilingual Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition
2. CIRC = Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

• Instructional Components and Separation of Languages

The instructional day is divided into two components, Integrated Spanish Instruction (ISI) and Integrated English Instruction (IEI). This provides for a 50-50 two-way model in which Spanish and English are utilized for instruction for an equal period of time. This indicates that the languages are valued equally and provides for a clear separation of instructional time in each language. The languages are systematically separated by instructional component, ISI and IEI, as well as by teacher.

Because the curriculum is organized into thematic units, all learning objectives are addressed at separate times in both languages (with the exception of those that are language specific), and materials appropriate for each language are used. To provide for in-depth study and sequential instruction, teachers alternate their schedule so that the content of the unit primarily related to language arts (including literacy and language development) is taught in Spanish BCIRC (see Instructional Methods, below) in the morning during ISI for one to two weeks and the content related to mathematics, science, and social studies in the afternoon during IEI for the same one to two weeks. Following that, English-language CIRC (language arts) is scheduled in the morning during IEI and the content area during ISI in the afternoon. Technology, art, music, and drama are integrated throughout ISI and IEI.

Some days, the students spend most of the day in one language, but the percentage evens out as the week progresses. The two teachers use one classroom for teacher-directed instruction and cooperative learning, and the other for computers and learning centers. While one teacher is conducting direct instruction, the other is facilitating group work or monitoring. Figure 1 is a schematic representation of the instructional day and indicates how language separation is achieved within the period of a thematic unit.

The purpose of this configuration is to enable the Spanish proficient students to learn English through extensive interaction with English role models without lagging behind academically. Concomitantly, it is to provide opportunities for native English speakers to learn all subject matter in Spanish, and become proficient in the second language of the community. Students are taught to work together in a mutually supportive environment.

• Class Composition

The 50-50 percent of English dominant and Spanish dominant students in each class promotes the heterogeneous instruction of students who are learning English and those who are fluent speakers of English. Students who qualify for bilingual education due to limited English and

native speakers of English who request to participate in the program are placed in the same class, ideally in equal numbers.

• Instructional Methods

The curriculum was delivered through the following instructional models: Team Inquiry, Group Investigation, and the English, Spanish, and ESL versions of the Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) instructional models (Stevens, Madden, Slavin, & Farnish, 1987; Calderón, 1994). Whole Language Approaches (Goodman, Goodman, & Flores, 1979; Ada, 1993) and computer-based instruction in reading (IBM, Jostens) were primarily used in kindergarten and first grade. The whole language approach consisted of shared reading with big books, interactive reading of trade books or a basal series, centers for student independent learning, and a computer program called Writing to Read.

For grades two through five, BCIRC was selected as the instructional approach. Students worked in heterogeneous teams of four. First, the teacher introduced a story from a basal text or trade book and introduced vocabulary and background information. Then, students worked in their teams on a prescribed series of activities relating to the story called Treasure Hunts. These include partner reading, in which students take turns reading to each other in pairs; Treasure Hunt activities, in which students work together to identify characters, settings, problems, and problem solutions in narratives; and summarization activities. Students write "meaningful sentences" to show the meaning of new vocabulary words, and write compositions that relate to their reading. The program includes a curriculum for teaching main idea, figurative language, and other comprehension skills, and includes a home reading and book report component. The writing/language arts component of CIRC uses a cooperative writing process approach in which students work together to plan, draft, revise, edit, and publish compositions in a variety of genres. Students master language mechanics and skills in their teams, and these are then added to editing checklists to ensure their continued application in the students' own writing. Teams earn recognition based on the performance of their members on quizzes, compositions, book reports, and other products (Slavin & Fashola, 1998; Madden et al., 1996; Calderón, Hertz-Lazarowitz, & Slávin, 1998). The five-day cycle of discussion-reading-writing activities is conducted in one language, and then the following week another cycle is conducted in the other language with a different trade book, novel or basal story. Figure 2 depicts the integration of the theme with literature selections, content areas, and skills objectives.

• Integrated Curriculum and Discourse

The difference between two-way bilingual and other bilingual/ESL programs is that the learning of English and Spanish are taught throughout the day and not just during language arts/reading or pull out sessions. First and second language are taught throughout the day to reinforce new vocabulary, language, reading and writing skills learned during the specific ninety minutes of language arts. That is the reason for integrating all subject areas with the reading curriculum.

The use of an integrated curriculum and cooperative learning structures appears to facilitate learning concepts and skills in two languages. Students are grouped in cooperative learning teams and are seated at round tables of four students, two learners of English and two learners of Spanish. This team structure promotes interaction and cooperation among students. Quality discourse organized through the Treasure Hunts promotes second language development, enhances the student's first language, and accelerates learning in general because students are also reading and writing.

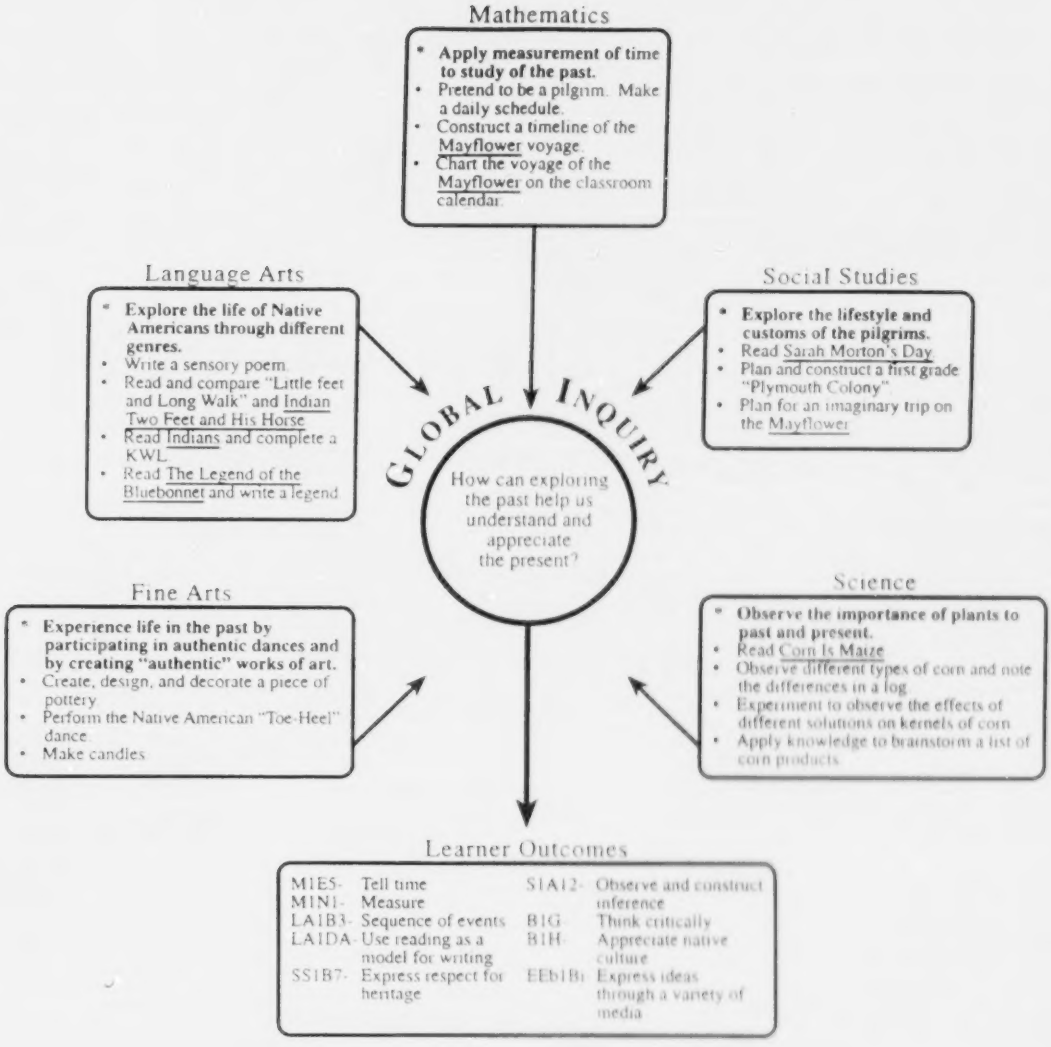
The second-phase schools chose to integrate the Success for All program into the two-way bilingual framework. The principle of integrated curriculum also applies in Two-Way Success for All (SFA) programs. Students in Lee Conmigo/Roots, the program for grade levels K-1, and ALAS/WINGS, for grades 2-6, are regrouped according to language dominance and continue with the 50-50 content instruction after the ninety minutes of SFA. Gradually, the students shift into the other language until all students are learning through alternating weeks of ALAS/WINGS. At this point, all students are proficient bilinguals and can function at high literacy levels in both languages. Figures 3-6 summarize the configurations for student assessment and placement, teachers' teaming structures, and instructional time distribution.

Several drafts of the SFA two-way bilingual organizational structures were designed and tested. Those on Figures 3 to 6 are the ones currently in place. Figure 7 illustrates the management of time for each language, and the approximate time of transition from one component to the other.

Figure 2

DISCOVER THE WORLD
NATIVE AMERICANS – PART I

GRADE ONE


Mathematics
* Apply measurement of time to study of the past.
• Pretend to be a pilgrim. Make a daily schedule.
• Construct a timeline of the Mayflower voyage.
• Chart the voyage of the Mayflower on the classroom calendar.
Language Arts
* Explore the life of Native Americans through different genres.
• Write a sensory poem.
• Read and compare "Little feet and Long Walk" and Indian Two Feet and His Horse
• Read Indians and complete a KWL.
• Read The Legend of the Bluebonnet and write a legend.
Social Studies
* Explore the lifestyle and customs of the pilgrims.
• Read Sarah Morton's Day
• Plan and construct a first grade "Plymouth Colony".
• Plan for an imaginary trip on the Mayflower.
GLOBAL INQUIRY
How can exploring the past help us understand and appreciate the present?
Fine Arts
* Experience life in the past by participating in authentic dances and by creating "authentic" works of art.
• Create, design, and decorate a piece of pottery.
• Perform the Native American "Toe-Heel" dance.
• Make candles.
Science
* Observe the importance of plants to past and present.
• Read Corn Is Maize
• Observe different types of corn and note the differences in a log.
• Experiment to observe the effects of different solutions on kernels of corn.
• Apply knowledge to brainstorm a list of corn products.
Learner Outcomes
M1E5- Tell time
M1N1- Measure
LA1B3- Sequence of events
LA1DA- Use reading as a model for writing
SS1B7- Express respect for heritage
S1A12- Observe and construct inference
B1G- Think critically
B1H- Appreciate native culture
EEb1B1- Express ideas through a variety of media

Any theme-related book may be substituted for literature titles given.
*MAJOR LEARNING OBJECTIVE

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Figure 3

SUCCESS FOR ALL — ÉXITO PARA TODOS
TWO-WAY BILINGUAL PROGRAM GUIDELINES

* ASSESSMENT AND PLACEMENT OF STUDENTS
> TEAM TEACHING CONFIGURATIONS FOR TEACHERS
• INSTRUCTIONAL TIME DISTRIBUTION

PRE-KINDERGARTEN — APRENDIZAJE INICIAL/EARLY LEARNING

* No SFA assessment is necessary. Language proficiency is determined by state/district oral language proficiency assessment guidelines and the Pre-IPT test. This will determine home-room placement.

> Each teacher has a heterogeneous classroom of 50% Spanish proficient and 50% English proficient students.

• Instruction is 50% Spanish and 50% English.
• The SFA Early Learning/Aprendizaje Inicial curriculum will be the core curriculum.
• Spanish and English instruction will be used on alternate weeks. This ensures language separation and full immersion in the language of instruction on an equal basis.

KINDERGARTEN — APRENDIZAJE INICIAL/EARLY LEARNING

* No SFA assessment is necessary. Language proficiency needs to be determined through the IPT 1 test. This will determine home-room placement.

> Each teacher has a heterogeneous classroom of 50% Spanish proficient and 50% English proficient students.

First Semester:

• Instruction is 50% English and 50% Spanish.

• The Early Learning/Aprendizaje Inicial curriculum and its corresponding components will be implemented via direct instruction in Spanish and English on alternate weeks. However, Spanish dominant children will read with *Deseamos Leer* and English dominant students will read with *Eager to Read*. This requires that teacher(s) group by language for this component for 15 minutes daily. Letter Investigations activities will also be conducted in the appropriate language during this time and integrated with *Deseamos Leer* or *Eager to Read*.

Second Semester:

• Spanish dominant children move from *Deseamos Leer* to *Kinder Lee Conmigo* (KLC).
• English dominant children move from *Eager to Read* to *Kinder Roots*.
• Instruction continues 50-50. However, students continue reading in their primary language and return to their Spanish or English teacher for 30 minutes *Kinder Lee Conmigo* or *Kinder Roots*.
  1. In a **half-day** program, KLC will be scheduled for 30 minutes three times per week. In a **full-day** program, KLC will be provided for 30 minutes daily.
  2. In a **half-day** program Kinder Roots will be scheduled for 30 minutes three times per week. In a **full-day** program Kinder Roots will be provided for 30 minutes daily.

Figure 4

SUCCESS FOR ALL — ÉXITO PARA TODOS
TWO-WAY BILINGUAL PROGRAM GUIDELINES

* ASSESSMENT AND PLACEMENT OF STUDENTS
> TEAM TEACHING CONFIGURATIONS FOR TEACHERS
• INSTRUCTIONAL TIME DISTRIBUTION

1st - 2nd GRADES — LEE CONMIGO/READING ROOTS/WINGS/ALAS

* Students will be assessed first with the IPT I to determine language dominance.

* Students will next be assessed with either the SFA Lee Conmigo or SFA Reading Roots Initial Assessment, depending on their dominant language.

> Based on numbers of students for each level in each language, SFA classes are formed. The team teachers will continue to team and exchange students after the 90-minute reading block. During the 90-minute block, they may need to send their students to other teachers. This will create different types of teams, across first and second grades, and perhaps third grades.

First Semester:

- Spanish dominant students go to *Lee Conmigo* teachers for the 90-minute reading block (Integrated Spanish Instruction time).
- English dominant students go to *Reading Roots* teachers for the 90-minute reading block (Integrated English Instruction time).

- Students who test out of *Lee Conmigo* will be placed in *Alas Para Leer* for the 90-minute block.

Second Semester:

- Spanish dominant students continue with *Lee Conmigo* teachers for the 90-minute reading block (Integrated Spanish Instruction time) until they finish book #50. In addition, Spanish dominant students go to a *Reading Roots* teacher for 45 minutes of *ESL Reading Roots* (Integrated English Instruction time). Students attend ESL and SSL classes as a homeroom. They are not regrouped for second language instruction.
- English dominant students go to *Reading Roots* teachers for the 90-minute reading block (Integrated English Instruction time) until they finish book #48. English dominant students will go to a *Lee Conmigo* teacher for 45 minutes of *SSL Lee Conmigo* (Integrated Spanish Instruction time). Students attend ESL and SSL classes as a homeroom. They are not regrouped for second language instruction.

- Students who test out of *Lee Conmigo* will be placed in Alas Para Leer for the 90-minute block and a 45-minute *ESL Reading Roots* instructional block later in the day. Students that test out of *Reading Roots* will be placed in Reading Wings for the 90-minute block and a 45-minute *SSL Lee Conmigo* instructional block later in the day.

Figure 5

SUCCESS FOR ALL — ÉXITO PARA TODOS
TWO-WAY BILINGUAL PROGRAM GUIDELINES

* ASSESSMENT AND PLACEMENT OF STUDENTS
> TEAM TEACHING CONFIGURATIONS FOR TEACHERS
• INSTRUCTIONAL TIME DISTRIBUTION

3rd GRADE — LEE CONMIGO/READING ROOTS or ALAS/WINGS

* All English and Spanish dominant students are assessed with ***both*** *Lee Conmigo Initial Assessment* and *Roots Initial Assessment*, and both results are recorded for each child.

> Based on numbers of students for each level in each language, SFA classes are formed. The team teachers will continue to team and exchange students after the 90-minute reading block. During the 90-minute block, they may need to send their students to other teachers. This will create different types of teams, across first and second grades, and perhaps third grades.

First Semester:

- Spanish dominant students will go to *Lee Conmigo* teachers for the 90-minute reading block (Integrated Spanish Instruction time).
- English dominant students will go to *Reading Roots* teachers for the 90-minute reading block (Integrated English Instruction time).

- Students who test out of *Lee Conmigo* will be placed in *Alas Para Leer* for the 90-minute block. Students who test out of *Reading Roots* will be placed in *Reading Wings* for the 90-minute block.

Second Semester.

- Spanish dominant students will continue with *Lee Conmigo* teachers for the 90-minute reading block (Integrated Spanish Instruction time) until they finish book #50. Spanish dominant students will go to a *Reading Roots* ESL certified teacher for 45 minutes of *ESL Reading Roots* (Integrated English Instruction time). Students attend ESL and SSL classes as a homeroom. They are not regrouped for second language instruction.
- English dominant students will go to *Reading Roots* teachers for the 90-minute reading block (Integrated English Instruction time) until they finish book #48. English dominant students will go to a *Lee Conmigo* teacher for 45 minutes of *SSL Lee Conmigo* (Integrated Spanish Instruction time). Students attend ESL and SSL classes as a homeroom. They are not regrouped for second language instruction.

- Students who test out of *Lee Conmigo* will be placed in *Alas Para Leer* for the 90-minute block and a 45-minute *ESL Reading Roots* instructional block later in the day. Students who test out of Reading Roots will be placed in Reading Wings for the 90-minute block and a 45-minute SSL Lee Conmigo instructional block later that day.

- Students who test out of *Lee Conmigo* and *Roots* will be placed in *Alas Para Leer* and *Reading Wings* for the 90-minute instructional block. Teachers will alternate students either after (1) every 5 day cycle; (2) two weeks; or (3) three weeks.

TAAS Note: SFA assessment is to be used, along with district criteria, to determine if students will be tested with Spanish or English TAAS for accountability.

Figure 6

SUCCESS FOR ALL — ÉXITO PARA TODOS
TWO-WAY BILINGUAL PROGRAM GUIDELINES

* ASSESSMENT AND PLACEMENT OF STUDENTS
> TEAM TEACHING CONFIGURATIONS FOR TEACHERS
• INSTRUCTIONAL TIME DISTRIBUTION

4th-5th GRADES — ALAS PARA LEER/READING WINGS

* The TAAS in English and TAAS in Spanish Texas Learning Index scores will be the determining factor for assessment and placement of all English and Spanish dominant students.

> Based on numbers of students for each level in each language, SFA classes are formed. The team teachers will continue to team and exchange students after the 90-minute reading block. During the 90-minute block, they may need to send their students to other teachers. This will create different types of teams, across grade levels.

First Semester:

- **Spanish** dominant students will go to *Alas Para Leer* teachers for the 90-minute reading block (Integrated Spanish Instruction time).
- **English** dominant students will go to *Reading Wings* teachers for the 90-minute reading block (Integrated English Instruction time).
- Some immigrant students may need *Older Lee Conmigo* instruction for the 90-minute block before moving on to *Alas Para Leer*.
- Some students may need *Older Roots* instruction for the 90-minute block before moving on to *Reading Wings*.

- Students who test out of *Lee Conmigo and Roots* will be placed in *Alas Para Leer* and *Reading Wings* for the 90-minute instructional block. Teachers will alternate students either after (1) every 5 day cycle; (2) two weeks; or (3) three weeks.

Second Semester:

- Spanish dominant students will continue with *Alas Para Leer* teachers for the 90-minute reading block (Integrated Spanish Instruction time) for the remainder of the year. Spanish dominant students will also go to a *Reading Roots* ESL certified teacher for 45 minutes of *ESL Older Reading Roots* (Integrated English Instruction time). Students attend ESL and SSL classes as a homeroom. They are not regrouped for second language instruction.
- English dominant students will go to *Reading Wings* teachers for the 90-minute reading block (Integrated English Instruction time) for the remainder of the year. English dominant students will also go to a *Lee Conmigo* teacher for 45 minutes of *SSL Lee Conmigo* (Integrated Spanish Instruction time).

- Students who tested out of *Roots* and *Lee Conmigo* will continue in *Alas Para Leer* and *Reading Wings* for the 90-minute instructional block. Teachers will alternate students between *Wings* and *Alas* either after (1) every 5 day cycle; (2) two weeks; or (3) three weeks. Second language instruction is no longer needed

TAAS Note: SFA assessment is used, along with district criteria, to determine if students will be tested with Spanish or English TAAS for accountability.

Figure 7
SFA Two-Way Bilingual Programs

	1st Semester	2nd Semester
K	ISI 50% + IEI 50% + EAGER to READ IEI 50% + ISI 50% + DESEAMOS LEER	KINDER ROOTS KINDER LEE CONMIGO
1ST	ROOTS → → → → → → → → →	→ → → → → → → → →

Staff Development Support for Program Implementation

In the pre-implementation phase under a local plan approved by the Texas Director for Bilingual Education, state bilingual education funds were used to provide 99 hours of staff development conducted by nationally and internationally known experts for the project's first teachers, and two teachers (one bilingual, one monolingual) for each grade level at two schools for grades 1-5. The schools' principals and assistant principals as well as the bilingual education program coordinator also committed to this extensive training. Most of the training was conducted during a Friday-Saturday two-session format which included:

1. **The "Intellectual Power of Bilingualism"** by Dr. Rafael Díaz;
2. **The Accelerated Schools Model and Processes, Language and Literacy** by Dr. Bob Wortman;
3. **The Cooperative Learning and Bilingual Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition Model** by Dr. Margarita Calderón;
4. **Multiple Intelligences** by David Lazear; and
5. **Using Portfolios for Authentic Assessment** by William Cooper.

In addition, study sessions and workshops were held after school on language acquisition and teaching in two languages. At the same time, the principals were facilitating their school's transition into an Accelerated School. Therefore, the entire school was involved in the process of systemic reform with special emphasis on restructuring the bilingual education program.

The following year the district was awarded a three-year Title VII grant for Developmental Bilingual Education to support the implementation. The Title VII funding helped design and implement a stronger staff development program. Project teachers, administrators, the program assistant, and the program director attended a two-semester college course on BCIRC, Cooperative Learning, Group Investigation and the Inquiry models of teaching to facilitate the acquisition of academic language and content in Spanish and English. Dealing with Change and Peer Coaching were also part of the two courses. Dr. Margarita Calderón was the instructor for the course as well as mentor for the program.

As the teachers learned through theory and hands-on activities how to teach students to work in teams, they learned how to work together and build communities of practice. A monthly TLC (Teachers Learning Community) session was held at the schools, which provided time for teachers to problem solve and share ideas as well as time to ask questions about administrative matters. This course and the TLCs set the foundation for collegiality and continued learning.

In years two and three, the professional development program consisted of ten days of workshops on curricular, pedagogical and assessment approaches, which were structured to accommodate more modeling in Spanish. The workshops provided theory, demonstrations in Spanish and English on the teaching models, and computer instruction. The monthly two-hour TLCs continued at the schools.

Parental Involvement

Parents need to play a major role in two-way programs. The program is dependent on the support of the parents for sanctioning bilingualism and for the long-term commitment for their children to complete all their elementary school years in the program.

Parents became involved in the program from the pre-implementation phase. Parent meetings were held in the spring prior to fall implementation to showcase the results of a field test of the curriculum and to provide a general overview. This not only provided background information but also became an incentive for voluntary enrollment of English speakers. All parents in the community were invited and it was explained that limited English proficient students currently enrolled in bilingual education classes would now be in the new two-way program. For many of the parents of the English speakers, it was an opportunity that they had long awaited. Their children would now have access to quality instruction in Spanish and an enriched curriculum in two languages. The parents of LEP students immediately saw the benefits. No longer would bilingual education be perceived as a remedial program. It was now recognized as an enrichment program for all students.

As a result of the parents' positive responses, classes filled up quickly and some students had to be placed on a waiting list. Each year the list got longer, until the district began implementing the program in other schools.

Activities for parents continued throughout each year. The challenge of working with two language groups of parents and facilitating activities which promote mutual understanding and respect for each other required sincerity and sensitivity. Teachers conducted discussion groups and structured other opportunities to help parents support their children as they acquire a new language, new friends, and a new culture. Parent-child activities included the publication of a book co-authored by the parent and child. The project included training sessions for parents on reading to children, reading with childre.., and reading by children as well as writing with children. Childcare was provided during which the same reading strategies were used with younger children. The project culminated with an author's "tea" where students displayed their books and received comments on their publications from the audience. Parents reported that

their publications became family treasures and heirlooms. The publications typically depicted family members, humor, pets, school, fantasies, and several other topics. Through the efforts of an ongoing learning community of students, teachers, and parents, the goals of the program were implemented and continued to be refined.

Administration and Staffing

Systemic reform incorporates every aspect of schooling, the school community, and the central administration. Site-based management made the school the center of decision-making and placed the central office staff in a supportive role, helping to facilitate change behind the scenes. The principal, the core teachers, program assistant, and the director for bilingual education also had to learn how to become a team and share the numerous challenges that come with the implementation of a new program.

The first challenge was for each principal to team program teachers, especially since they had to work as partners and share a room. Principals made every effort to encourage teachers to select their teams but the new experience of working as a team or conducting instruction for a half-day in Spanish caused some concern among teachers. Staffing the bilingual position was the most difficult and was done with teachers already on the staff, where possible. Mobility and a few teams who found teaming difficult had to be addressed on a yearly basis.

SECTION 2
PEDAGOGICAL FEATURES THAT FACILITATED OR OBSTRUCTED LEARNING

Teacher and student development go hand in hand. This section discusses teacher development through peer ethnographies, and the ways teachers learned about their capacities to construct, control, and manipulate bilingual texts. During the TLC sessions, teachers were asked to take on the roles of peer coaches, classroom ethnographers, trainers of other teachers, and curriculum writers. The emphasis on these structures created new tasks and new ways of looking at their daily routines. Peer coaching became a way of doing classroom ethnographies. Simple ethnographic techniques were demonstrated so they could practice and experiment in their classrooms with their peer coaches. Each teacher did a mini-ethnography while the other was teaching. They scripted a segment, then analyzed and discussed the data together. These instructional events were also video taped so that the researcher could assist if necessary, and to have a context for discussion at the next TLC meeting.

The following scripts typically occurred during a 30- to 90-minute instructional segment. These simple time-dependent observations gave teachers a point of departure for further study and refinement. The scripts were written mostly in English. Monolingual English teachers had no problem identifying participant structures or key events in teaching/learning segments even though the instructional conversations were conducted in Spanish. Below are four examples that teachers brought to the TLC and which generated extensive discussion by the teams of teachers. These were also video taped in order to conduct a researcher's analysis of the features that facilitated or obstructed student learning and teacher learning.

During the 22 minutes of English instruction, students worked with partners on ten sets of word problems which integrated social studies and math as follows: Find out who lived the longest: Lincoln or Juárez? How many presidents were there between Washington and Lincoln? Who were they? How many years between their presidencies? Students had readings and Treasure Hunts with some of the information, but other information had to be found in encyclopedias or other reference books.

After a seven-minute break, the students came back into the classroom to continue with the presidents' theme. There was a transition activity from English to Spanish, as shown below.

TWO-WAY BILINGUAL CLASSROOM #1 — Grade 3

8:20	(Instruction in Spanish) Math review — 100s
8:35	Math new instruction — 1000s
8:50	Math in Presidential Unit — in teams of four — Research questions on presidential facts
9:05	(Instruction in English) Explanation of how to work together on these story problems — Students begin their work.
9:15	Review of organizational strategies for more effective work
9:28	Students begin work again.
9:40	Reality check. "Who's finished?" "Come help this other team." "You have 10 more minutes."
9:50	Students finish, put work away.

Break

(90 minutes)

The socially constructed forms of discourse in one language (e.g., organization of team members to complete the assigned task and help the partners understand in that language) transfers easily into activities in the other language. A systematic program such as BCIRC which uses a consistent sequence of tasks and patterns for learning helps students transfer knowledge and skills from one language into the other with more ease. These socially constructed forms of discourse are appropriated by students and become a means for restructuring their ways of responding to texts.

Both of the teachers in each class had to interrupt the teams to help them "come up with a better strategy" as soon as they noticed difficulties. Students needed time to learn how to learn with peers. Biliteracy implies both literacy in two languages and respect for and the blending of two socio-cultural systems of knowledge. This is particularly important for the minority child whose primary discourses may differ from the institutional discourses which are readily acquired by the majority children.

TWO-WAY BILINGUAL CLASSROOM #1 — Grade 3

9:55 (Instruction in English)

Students come back and immediately start reciting English poem from last week with one teacher while the other distributes reading material and questions for next instructional event in Spanish.

—Students practice choral reading of poem (first boys, then girls, then line by line, then one line soft, one line loud).

— Teacher asks how students "feel" about this poem. Seven students quickly share.

10:00 (Transition into Spanish)

Students recite last week's Spanish poem. (Students who had memorized the poems received reward points for their team on a wall chart).

10:05 (Instruction in Spanish)

"Compañeros juntos por favor" sends students to quickly pair up for partner reading in Spanish.

— Following the presidential theme, booklets about Lincoln and Juárez become the reading selection in Spanish. (There's a table with other books, booklets, etc. about U.S. and Mexico's presidents in Spanish).

10:06 Partner reading is fluent, interactive; students help each other; stay on task and discuss what they read.

10:16 "Un mapa del cuento" (story map)

— Students are to map four important events in the presidents' lives.

— Teacher and students discuss some events.

— Teacher explains the task and asks several questions to check for understanding.

10:35 Students begin work.

10:40 Teacher redirects teams by talking about strategies for organization.

10:45 Students go back to work. Some argue about the task, reach agreement, start work.

11:00 Teachers monitor and check work by teams. Bilingual teacher checks sentences to describe each event. Team teacher checks product and process.

11:55 Large maps have been constructed and students are getting ready to present them to the class, after they return from lunch.

(120 minutes)

One problem the teachers perceived through the scripts was that the students spent too much time on their story maps ("It didn't feel that long") while they were monitoring the students and listening to their discussions. While discussion is critical to learning, the 55 minutes appeared too long for one task discussion. Too much time on such team products was often a problem in all the classrooms.

The team teachers had been concerned that not enough time was given to Spanish instruction. Their own analysis of their peer coaching scripts reassured them that they were on the right track. Their next step was to continue to do scripts systematically for a whole week to determine the "real time on language" during a week's instructional unit. Unfortunately, the result was that about 65% of time was spent on English versus 35% on Spanish. That information would serve as a next step for improvement. They planned lessons for the following week and used their peer coaching scripts to facilitate further refinement of their teaching and equal time to both languages.

The following two examples illustrate how one team teacher facilitated opportunities for student learning and more peer interaction while the other employed strategies that restricted interaction and learning.

TWO-WAY BILINGUAL CLASSROOM #3 — Grade 4

8:55	(Instruction in English)
	Teacher reads a poem. Then she says it's really a song and sings it.
	"What character does this remind you of?" Students give opinions about other fiction and real life characters.
9:00	How would you read the part about…? Teacher models and then helps students get into the rhythm.
	— The teacher reads the poem one more time and the students clap when they hear the rhyming words at the end of lines.
9:05	"Lets check for comprehension…" The teacher asks the students to tell about their own similar experiences.
9:10	"Line up if you can sing the line after my line." The teacher sings lines out of sequence. She sings the first line, points to a team, and the team has to sing the second line in unison. If they sing it correctly, the team lines up to go to PE.
9:15	Students sing themselves out the door. Teachers place materials on tables for next activity.

(20 minutes)

This segment helped students feel and experience phonemic awareness through rhyme and song in English. The students identified pairs of rhyming words they later used as a word bank to write their own poems. When the teacher said, "let's check for comprehension" she let students give examples of their own experiences similar to the character's dilemma in the song. The teacher built interdependence in each team by arbitrarily selecting lines from the song. This means that in each team, all students had to listen attentively and quickly to help each other "tune in" to the sequential line. Furthermore, the two dominant English speakers had to rush in with a variety of strategies to help the two students who had not yet memorized the song. This peer assistance was conducted smoothly and quickly with no trace of the resentment sometimes observed in cooperative teams where the students who "know" do not want to help those that "don't know."

While the English segment had several opportunities for minority and majority students to learn and participate, the Spanish segment that followed was not as meaningful to the students.

TWO-WAY BILINGUAL CLASSROOM #3 — Grade 4

10:05	(Instruction in Spanish)
	Morning message: Tengo unos errores aquí. ¿Quién los encuentra? (The whole-class attempts to find 5 errors in the teachers' five sentences)
10:25	Basado en la canción de esta mañana, ¿qué podría recibir el niño para navidad?
	— Students brainstorm and teacher webs students' ideas on the chalkboard.
10:30	"These are sentence strips from the story we are going to read today. Read the sentence strips in pairs and draw a picture about what those sentence strips describe." (Students work in pairs to draw a picture.
10:52	Students give pictures to teachers and the teachers post them in sequence on a long bulletin board. The pictures from the book have been photocopied and the teachers place them beside the students' drawings. (Students sit on the floor and chairs facing the bulletin board. 25 students go up, one at a time, to describe what they drew.)
11:08	Teacher reads the story from her trade book.
11:23	Students are asked to write their own song about the same topic when they come back from lunch.

(78 minutes)

At the beginning of this teaching segment, in what the teacher called "morning message," fifteen minutes were used to identify five errors. This could have been easily accomplished in two to three minutes. During the 78 minutes, the activity structure was mostly teacher talk, teacher sequencing, teacher reading, and students sitting in pairs but doing independent work (drawing of pictures to depict one or two sentences from the story). The students spent 22 minutes drawing and 2 minutes reading versus the 15 minutes the teacher took to read. Teacher reading is important for modeling or when it is the type of interactive reading that develops listening comprehension, but in this case it was straight reading of the story.

The many typical behaviors of non-listeners were also evident during that reading segment: restlessness, bothering another student, and other off-task behaviors. The error detection activity was also extremely long and students merely practiced "guessing" strategies. As teachers and ethnographers examined this script, we saw how students had missed out on learning about the story's structure, author's craft, vocabulary in the second or first language, social norms for constructing meaning, or talking about learning. After examining this script, the teacher mentioned that her training on "whole language" had taught her not to impose on the students and to help them out as much as possible. She felt it would take some time to "tighten up her technique and not do so much for the students."

Simple scripts such as these helped the teachers begin to analyze how time and quality of learning were distributed throughout each day. They gave a clear yet concise view of time spent on each language; time on subject matter; the time the teacher is on stage versus the time the students are working in teams with partners, or individually; the difference between busy work and learning; and how the team teaching is distributed. It gave teachers some tools with which to step back and generate a set of questions that would serve for analysis, reflection, and reorganization of time, language status, and implicit power in the participant structures. After the teachers' group reflection, they synthesized their concerns into the questions (shown below) for further analysis.

The list of categories helped the teachers do further inquiry on the quality of student participant structures, the quality of learning in one language or the other, as well as the time and status of each language. With practice, their observations became more focused on the factors that enhanced or restricted learning. The peer ethnographies gave teachers greater insights into their own professional development needs.

By creating a culture of inquiry through ethnography, professional learning was focused and accelerated. With the tools of "teacher ethnography," the team of monolingual and bilingual teachers drew closer together. They learned about their teaching by observing children and their partner. Their partner provided a mirror for their teaching. Change became meaningful, relevant, and necessary. The teachers' continuous learning brought about instructional program refinement and impacted student gains as evidenced by the academic and

linguistic data compared between limited English proficient students in the two-way program and those in traditional transitional bilingual programs.

Teachers' Recommendations after Analysis of Scripts

A. Analyze the academic objective and outcome of the lesson.

1. Does the product reflect ample learning of an academic skill?
2. What other strategic learning skill have students learned?
3. What was the linguistic learning?
   The reading? The writing? The content?

B. How much time do teachers spend on:

1. Explanations of the tasks and procedures?
2. Correcting tasks and procedures or re-explaining?
3. Doing too much for the students?

C. How much time do students spend:

1. Drawing?
2. Making products?
3. Writing?
4. Reading?
5. Teaching and learning with partners?
6. On the computer?

D. What is the status of English and Spanish?

1. How much time is spent in Spanish in a week?
2. How much time is spent in English in a week?
3. What is taught in Spanish?
4. What is taught in English?
5. How do students react to either one?
6. How are we improving on a week by week basis?

E. How's our team teaching?

1. How do we orchestrate our roles for each teaching event?
2. Who was on stage more this week?
3. How does the team teacher assist?
4. What does the team teacher really do when the other is on stage?
5. How can we balance or improve our team teaching?

Table 1

TAAS (Average Texas Learning Index)

	READING				MATH			
Grade	Two-Way NonLEP	Two-Way Bilingual **LEP**	Bilingual	District	Two-Way NonLEP	Two-Way Bilingual **LEP**	Bilingual	District
Three	82.0	**78.1**	70.3	78.3	75.3	**73.5**	71.0	76.0
Four	77.7	**73.1**	65.4	78.4	77.5	**75.3**	68.2	75.8
Five	79.1	**71.0**	63.2	80.2	73.3	**68.5**	64.9	75.3

Comparison of Limited English Proficient Students in Two-Way and Traditional Bilingual Programs

The academic gains at the end of the three years for third, fourth and fifth graders were significantly better for students in the two-way bilingual classrooms than for those in the other three district bilingual programs. Several of the students in the fourth and fifth grades had only been in the program one or two years. Nevertheless, their scores from the English Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS) were close to the district's average. Although the LEP students were still behind the non-bilingual students, they were significantly above the other LEP students in the district after the three years of simultaneous program development and implementation.

It is important to note that the comparison of LEP students in two-way and traditional settings is not intended as a matched experiment, as there may have been selection factors involved in the assignment of students to the two-way bilingual program. However, the higher scores of the LEP students in the two-way programs suggest benefits worth investigating more fully in well-controlled experiments.

SECTION 3

TEACHERS' TRANSFER OF KNOWLEDGE FROM PROFESSIONAL LEARNING INTO THE CLASSROOM

Teachers learned through (1) the traditional workshops; (2) becoming ethnographers; (3) practicing peer coaching; (4) their activity in TLCs; and (5) through observations and feedback from the bilingual director and the researcher. As coaches, we guided teachers through their self-discovery by providing feedback after our observations in each context of the four components.

The content imparted in the workshops became the constant variable, which could be observed to measure transfer into the classroom. The observation of transfer focused on four levels: (1) degree of integration of skill or technique into the teacher's instructional repertoire; (2) effect on attitude (toward students and the other teachers); (3) pedagogical contribution (how the teacher enriched the model, taught it); and (4) collegial relationships and contributions to other teachers. We included collegial relationships because we felt that these were part and parcel of the transfer into a teacher's instructional repertoire.

Teachers were ranked at the beginning and end of each year according to performance levels (1=exemplary, 2=average, 3=needs more assistance). Looking at teachers from the four dimensions of skill, attitude, pedagogical contribution, and collegial contribution helped us find the teachers' strengths. We later borrowed the notion of Talent Development (Boykin, 1996) to build on teachers' strengths. Feedback to the teachers after observations was couched to boost self-esteem while pointing out the three performance ratings for each dimension:

1. Teachers were told how important they were to the project;
2. They were reminded of their influence and that what they do makes a difference, e.g.,

   "Here is where you make a difference...."

   "But, there is always room for improvement...."

   "Here are some tools for that...."
3. What did we learn from this?

Motivation and Fidelity in the TLCs

Feedback was appreciated because it was a combination of motivation, tools for achieving fidelity to the goals and program components, and recommendations for joint problem solving and further development in the TLCs. As agents of change, teachers co-constructed an inquiry process based on the data from their and our observations. This was perhaps the greatest motivating factor for the teachers. As long as the TLCs were implemented, teacher agency remained.

The knowledge that researchers derived from the teachers about professional development is perhaps one of the greatest contributions of this project. The knowledge of how to structure TLCs in diverse settings has had a broad appeal.

Collegial Relationships and Power Struggles

The examples of the ethnographic studies in TLCs allowed teachers to develop meaningful peer relationships and collaborative ways to fashion new knowledge and beliefs about their students, their teaching, and their own learning. Preliminary evidence from the classroom ethnographies indicates that this approach builds texts and contexts for teachers for self-analysis, negotiation, and problem solving. The ethnographies also created a cycle of peer observation for analysis of concrete teaching tasks, joint reflection, and readjustments. The cycle resembled the typical peer coaching cycle of pre-conference, observation, analysis, and discussion.

The conversational and written texts in the TLCs in most cases established and enhanced social relations and identities as equal peers. Both teacher partners were immersed in the construction of meaning as they sought to understand the teaching and learning processes in their classrooms. This co-construction also gave equal status to the Hispanic and Anglo teachers. The untapped talents of each teacher were discovered in this joint venture. Each took a turn becoming expert, novice, and equal peer. When this balance is achieved, teachers become empowered. The tensions between official discourses and minority discourses dissipate. The silenced or too often omitted voices of bilingual teachers become an equal contributing factor to school improvement, and more importantly, to student success.

In two cases, however, the teaming did not survive beyond one year. Both teams suffered a difference of ideology. The bilingual teachers felt their partners were either being unfair to minority children, attempted to display superiority in front of the children, or wanted to control every instructional decision. Unfortunately, the teachers felt that they should keep

these power struggles private, thus increasing their intensity as time went by. By the time we became aware of their differences, the bilingual teachers had already requested a transfer.

From these two failed relationships, we learned that power relations between monolingual and bilingual teachers need to be addressed from the beginning as part of program implementation. The bilingual and mainstream teachers were in similar stages of their careers but the bilingual teachers had received more preparation and keener insights into the needs of the Latino children. However, they felt less powerful to make the necessary reforms in their classrooms and in their team relations.

As schools continue to seek school-wide reform, these problems are bound to occur, regardless of the program. As more students of diverse language backgrounds enter the schools, more mainstream and bilingual teachers will be struggling to change their instructional approaches, attitudes, and beliefs. District-wide staff development practices will need to help teachers adapt to social change as well as instructional change.

Staff development for two-way bilingual teachers will certainly need to include issues of power and the type of relationships that are to be encouraged in students and between and among the teachers. More exploration is needed to help mainstream teachers who might feel threatened by bilingual partners with greater expertise. Staff development practices must take special care to note the mainstream teachers' needs. Not all resistance came from racist views. Some resulted from feelings of inadequacy or other issues. Teachers must also be trained to look at the status of each language and how each is encouraged or sanctioned by their everyday instructional decisions, their body language, and the treatment of their partner.

SECTION 4
THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND IMPLEMENTATION RESULTS

If strong school-level leadership is important for effective schools (Barth, 1991; Hargreaves, 1997), it is even more important for bilingual schools or schools with large numbers of Latino students (Goldenberg & Sullivan, 1994; Tikunoff et al., 1991). Because of the complexity of two-way program schools, strong leadership from the district and from the principal is critically important. Principals, in particular, must be highly skilled and sensitive to the issues described in this report. Principals need to provide continuous direction and yet work collegially with the bilingual director and district supervisors. A quality collegial relationship at school affords teachers the power to experiment. Yet principals also need to know how to supervise within this context of continuous change and adaptation and a curriculum foreign to everyone. Principals must be skilled as change agents, instructional leaders, and supervisors. The role of the principal goes beyond typical job expectations because this leader must be highly skilled in human relations and in confronting racial tension, historical inequalities, and ingrained negative attitudes.

> If principals do not adequately monitor the environment and re-examine the customary policies and practices of their schools in response to changing conditions, they risk creating a situation in which teachers become frustrated and demoralized and in which students who differ from the norm are rendered effectively invisible (Merchant, 1999, p.153).

The principal of a two-way bilingual school cannot be afraid to lead his/her faculty into new territory while ensuring a safe and stimulating environment. It means constant hard work.

The selection of the two-way bilingual programs was partially due to the principals at those schools. Both volunteered to take on and marshal the program. However, only one principal attended all the professional development sessions and the two semesters of course work. Her school showed the greatest student success and the program persisted, even after she retired during the second year of implementation. Her retirement was unexpected and left everyone speculating as to the reason. An interim principal was appointed the second year and another was hired for the final year. In spite of the turnover, the program persisted because of the initial thrust the first principal gave the program and because the teachers sustained it.

The principal at the second school had been there for many years and continued until the end of the three-year project. However, by the third year, this school with the lowest SES and highest percentage of Hispanic students was on a downhill spiral in terms of student

achievement, as well as unhappy teachers and parents. By not attending the training sessions, the principal had difficulty understanding the components, purpose, and philosophy of the program. The principal, although Hispanic, came from a traditional view of 'maintaining peace and the status quo' at all costs.

The school, up to the third year, had implemented the program in only two classrooms per grade level. When the superintendent told the principal to expand it to the whole school, the principal began to plan his retirement. He was certain from the start that all the other teachers would not want to team-teach. His expectations were soon reverberating among the teachers. The negative messages from the principal and teachers thereafter reached the parents' ears, and many of them signed waivers to keep their children out of any bilingual intervention at that school.

Hence, the school became divided between those teachers who had already implemented the program and those who were going to do their best to keep it out of their classrooms. Their reasons were that it was too much work and that they didn't like having another teacher with them in the classroom. The principal gave them the option to remain "as they were," and they did. At this particular school, it was also evident that the first and second graders were having many reading problems. The third grade teachers began asking for easier Treasure Hunts (BCIRC materials) in both Spanish and English. When the faculty had the option to adopt Success for All or a popular worksheet program, the two-way team teachers were outvoted and the faculty opted for the worksheets. The principal and the majority of the teachers (who were both Anglo and Hispanic) fought to reenact the former status of the school, the inequalities that had been established years ago in that eighty-year-old school.

This school year, their students' scores are among the lowest ranking in the district. Half of the two-way bilingual teachers have left, and the program has eroded to an unrecognizable stage. The principal retired and a new principal is attempting to pick up the pieces.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The three-year study documented a process for designing and implementing a two-way bilingual program in two schools. The project had some outcomes that can be characterized as successes and some as failures. These served to provide inferences about two-way bilingual program implementation and to make some tentative recommendations for schools planning to develop their own programs and for further research.

The successes hinged on the components carefully orchestrated by the bilingual director and the teachers. The issues of failure appeared to evolve around the principals' and district administrators' lack of leadership. The inferences we can draw here are that (1) the bilingual educators invested time, energy, and commitment to their programs by attempting their best; (2) they used research-based instructional models and expanded the knowledge base; (3) the principals had their own agendas throughout the project; and (4) the district administration kept a safe distance.

Successes included the development, piloting, and refinement of a K-5 bilingual interdisciplinary thematic curriculum. The literature-based Bilingual Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition model of instruction (BCIRC) was combined with math, science, social studies, and multicultural art and music. Each interdisciplinary unit was created around a theme and inquiry question. Each grade level curriculum consisted of at least ten themes. The curriculum was so well received by teachers that the following year it was adopted by most of the schools in the district.

A second achievement was the organization of program structures for a 50-50 two-way bilingual program. Most two-way bilingual programs in the nation have been organized around a 90-10 percent instruction formula. That is, 90% of instructional time in kindergarten is given in Spanish and 10% in English. In first grade, it shifts to 80% in Spanish and 20% in English. Then, it continues to shift per grade level until it reaches a 50-50 combination. These two schools decided to implement a 50-50 design from kindergarten through fifth grade all at once. The 50-50 was orchestrated through the units and themes taught weekly, and not necessarily by daily schedules. BCIRC was taught in one language for a five-day cycle, then the following cycle was taught in the other language. When there was a need to teach math in one language for a week or two, science would be taught in the other language. Thus, the teachers attempted to adhere to the 50-50 percent. The second phase schools contributed to the experimentation of the organizational structures for a two-way SFA program.

The program had great impact on Latino students. Students who had often seen themselves as the ones needing help, or those who did not speak English well, now saw that

they were valued by their classmates because they needed their expertise in Spanish. New friendships were made among both language groups, which carried beyond the school grounds. Both groups were succeeding through cooperative learning. For an enthusiastic first grader, class was better than Disneyland. When her family scheduled a trip during school time, she refused to go, because she "might miss something at school."

Student achievement as measured by the state's standardized test scores, and compared to students in the other bilingual programs, was for the most part significantly better for both English monolingual and bilingual students in the two-way schools. Visitors from other Texas districts found their way into the two-way schools, and presentations about the program were in high demand at conferences. Students became so accustomed to visitors that they missed them when no one came to visit for a while. One of the most memorable visitor comments was, "This is better than any gifted and talented program I've ever seen." Due to the students' accomplishments, interest in two-way bilingual education grew in the district and schools initiated similar programs or used the curriculum.

Teachers became models of cooperation for students as they saw them collaborate and support each other. Students thought it was "exciting" having two teachers in the classroom who taught in different languages. LEP students liked to see the English monolingual teachers supporting Spanish instruction. Limited Spanish proficient students liked how the English teacher was learning Spanish along with them.

Parents also felt the impact of two-way bilingual education. The frequent meetings at the schools kept parents informed and gave them an opportunity to ask questions and make suggestions. Those parents that expressed interest in having their children learn Spanish felt that the school acknowledged their input and thus became avid supporters of the program. Spanish-speaking parents found that Spanish was finally valued and that they and their children brought a special resource to the school. Parents from the two language groups were brought closer together through the activities of parent-child co-authoring, class field trips, and as volunteers in the classrooms. The parents, just as the students, enjoyed learning about each other.

Perhaps the greatest contribution from this project was the implementation and further refinement of the Teachers Learning Communities. The description of the process and the outcomes for teachers helped advance the concept of a Teachers Talent Development Model of professional development. Even though teachers began at the three levels of adaptability and knowledge-base, there were exciting improvements in all the groups. Forty percent of the teachers went on to pursue Masters' programs. Five became assistant principals and two were promoted this year to principals. Other teachers became teachers of the year or were recognized in some way for their accomplishments. Some became trainers and others curriculum writers

for the district. They all created a strong network of learning and sharing which still continues on an informal basis.

The refinement of TLCs came about through their inventiveness of structures necessary to sustain their experimentation and motivation as they took ownership of the development of the program. The more freedom they were given to add to the curriculum or to the instructional delivery process, the more they got involved. More involvement led to more learning and utilization of talents that had not been tapped before.

Building on previous studies of TLCs, new TLC activities involved teachers as ethnographers of their and their team teachers' instructional behaviors. Peer coaching also took on new forms as partners experimented with more comfortable processes. Former activities were also confirmed to be useful tools for this project. The activity structure was documented and replicated in new Success for All schools to verify its utility across bilingual settings.

As in most projects, not all was success. One of the most obvious situations was the weakness of the initial first grade reading program. It was a combination of "whole language approaches" and two computer reading-writing programs. The district was very much "into whole language" at that time and they refused to look into first-grade reading research-based programs such as Success for All. BCIRC was not designed to be used at first grade, but some teachers attempted to modify it to fit their literature books. The teachers tried their best to invent and put together strategies that mostly avoided phonics.

Among the major failures, we can cite the spiral-down effect of students' scores at the less successful school, even after the project. These scores reflected a series of other causal relationships due to weak leadership at the school. The principal felt there was no need for him to participate in the professional development opportunities. He refused to acknowledge that his students needed a strong early reading program. He gave minimal support to the two-way bilingual teachers.

Nevertheless, the program features and key components withstood the test of time and weak leadership. The credit goes to the teachers who became agents within a community of learners. TLC structures helped teachers cope with the lack of school leadership support for the first two years of the program. After the second year, the schools were supposed to continue the TLCs while the district supported 'refresher' and 'new knowledge' workshops. The schools did not sustain the TLCs and during the third year, the quality of implementation eroded and morale deteriorated. In the meantime, a third school that had been watching and learning from this implementation process decided to implement the two-way bilingual program in conjunction with Success for All/Éxito Para Todos. The implementation at this new school is helping us to make comparisons at different levels and to further the study on two-way

bilingual program effects. There is now a fourth school which is taking a different approach still. It implemented Success for All and Éxito Para Todos first. Once the teachers became comfortable with SFA/EPT, it began the two-way bilingual program with one grade level per year. This will ease both programs into implementation in the next few years. Thus far, the teachers are comfortable with this plan and the students are doing extremely well.

Recommendations

Two-way bilingual programs are some of the most comprehensive reform initiatives. It is not enough to have the curriculum, well-prepared teachers, and a well-thought out design. Without the support from the school leadership, the program can still fail. For this reason, in addition to the 11 principles listed previously, we make the following recommendations:

1. The programs must be an integral part of the whole school operation; better yet, a whole-school reform initiative where all teachers, administrators, parents and students are involved.

2. A strong principal must maintain a supportive school-wide climate and be willing to learn, alongside with teachers, on a continuous basis, and supervise/motivate to ensure quality implementation and improvement.

3. The principal must be well skilled in coalition building skills and strong enough to move a faculty beyond political divisions, which are likely to be reflections of the larger community or district ethos.

4. Staff development for teachers and administrators must include ways of addressing and altering power relationships in the school: socio-political issues of diversity, difference, ethnicity, equity, bias, power struggles, and of course, views about bilingual education.

5. Teacher agency and capacity for change, which underlie school reform initiatives such as these, are best enhanced through teachers' learning communities at the school.

6. Staff development, implementation visits, and implementation reports from outside the school are necessary to sustain the quality of the program.

7. The instructional program must be created through a comprehensive balanced curriculum: interdisciplinary learning of both languages through

all the content areas articulated with the English and Spanish language arts/reading programs.

8. The instructional program must include explicit skills instruction in reading, higher-order skills and comprehension at all grade levels. Systematic student assessment is necessary to inform instruction and the need for additional interventions.

In essence, we recommend that a school begin by making a commitment to positive working relations, collegial continuous learning, and flexibility in letting go of comfortable routines. Stronger than all other components, the roles and responsibilities of all the stakeholders in the process of change must be made clear. The principal(s) will need to go through intensive retraining in order to develop the new skills that these new programs require. The strong leadership and the climate of positive change are the foundation for a research-based program. The program becomes the basis for everyone's learning and contribution of talent. The comprehensive instructional program must be able to provide teachers with curriculum for the entire day. A program such as Success for All and Éxito Para Todos must be integrated with math, science, social studies, and the arts in both languages. Most important, the school leader needs to be well aware and well skilled in the complexities that such exciting programs bring — along with their promise of success.

REFERENCES

Ada, A.F. (1993). Mother-tongue literacy as a bridge between home and school cultures. In J.V. Tinajero & A.F. Ada (Eds.), The power of two languages: Literacy and biliteracy for Spanish-speaking students. (pp. 158-163). New York: Macmillan/McGraw-Hill.

Anstrom, K. (1998). *Academic achievement for secondary language-minority students: Standards, measures and promising practices.* National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. http://www.ncbe.gwu.edu/ncbepubs/reports/acadach.htm.

Apple, M.W. (1993). *Official knowledge: Democratic education in a conservative age.* New York: Routledge.

Arias, A., & Bellman, B. (1994). Pedagogical and research uses of computer-mediated conferencing. In R. De Villar, C. Faltis, & J.P. Cummins (Eds.), *Cultural diversity in schools: From rhetoric to practice.* New York: SUNY.

August, D., & Hakuta, K. (Eds.) (1997). *Improving schooling for language-minority children: A research agenda.* Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

August, D., & Hakuta, K. (Eds.) (1998). *Educating language-minority children.* Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Barth, R.S. (1991). *Improving schools from within.* San Francisco.

Basterra, M. de R. (Ed.) (1998). *Excellence and equity for language-minority students: Critical issues and promising practices.* Chevy Chase, MD: The Mid-Atlantic Equity Consortium.

Bellenger, L. (1979). *Los métodos de la lectura.* Barcelona: Oikos-Tau.

Berman, P., Minicucci, C., McLaughlin, B., Nelson, B., & Woodworth, K. (1995). *School reform and student diversity: Case studies of exemplary practices for LEP students.* Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Calderón, M. (In press). *TLCs: Teachers' Learning Communities.* Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk.

Calderón, M. (1999). *Success for Latino students and their teachers.* Keynote speech at the annual meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, New York, March.

Calderón, M. (1998). Adolescent sons and daughters of immigrants: How schools can respond. In K.M. Borman & B. Schneider (Eds.), *The adolescent years: Social influences and educational challenges. Ninety-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Calderón, M. (1997). *New insights into staff development for bilingual schools.* Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs' Management Institute, Albuquerque, NM, February.

Calderón, M. (1991). Benefits of cooperative learning for Hispanic students. In *Texas Research Journal*, 2, 39-57.

Calderón, M., & Carreón, A. (In press). Two-Way bilingual programs: Promise, practice and problems. In R. E. Slavin & M. Calderón (Eds.), *Effective programs for Latino children*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Calderón, M., & Carreón, A. (1994). Educators and students use cooperative learning to become biliterate and bicultural. *Cooperative Learning Magazine*, 4, 6-9.

Calderón, M., Hertz-Lazarowitz, R., & Slavin, R.E. (November, 1998). Effects of Bilingual Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition on students making the transition from Spanish to English reading. *Elementary School Journal*, *99*(2), 153-165.

Calderón, M., Tinajero, J.V., & Hertz-Lazarowitz, R. (1992). Adapting Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) to meet the needs of bilingual students. *The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, 10*, 79-106.

California Department of Education (Eds.) (1986). *Beyond language: Social and cultural factors in schooling language minority students*. Los Angeles: California State University, Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center.

California Department of Education (Eds.) (1986). *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework*. Los Angeles: California State University, Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center.

Chamot, A., Dale, M., Malley, M., & Spaos, G.A. (1993). Learning and problem solving strategies of ESL students. *Bilingual Research Journal, 16* (3 & 4), 1-34.

Christian, D. (1996). Two-way immersion education: Students learning through two languages. *Modern Language Journal, 80*, 66-76.

Christian, D., & Whitcher, A. (1995). *Directory of two-way bilingual programs in the United States* (Rev. ed.) Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Cohen, E., Lotan, R., Scarloss, B., & Arellano, A. (1999). Complex instruction: Equity in cooperative learning classrooms. In M. Calderón & R.E. Slavin (Eds.), Building community through cooperative learning. *Theory into Practice*. Spring 38, 2, 80-86.

Cohen, A.D. (1993). Researching bilingualism in the classroom. In A.W. Miracle, (Ed.), *Bilingualism: Social issues and policy implications* (pp. 133-148). Athens, GA: University of Georgia Press.

Cole, M. (1996). *Cultural psychology*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Collier, V.P. (1995). *Acquiring a second language for school: Directions in Language & Education # 4*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Collier, V.P. (1995). *Promoting academic success for ESL students: Understanding second language acquisition for school*. Elizabeth, NJ: NJTESOL-BE.

Cummins, J. (1993). Empowerment through biliteracy. In J.V. Tinajero & A. F. Ada (Eds.), *The power of two languages: Literacy and biliteracy for Spanish-speaking students* (pp. 9-25). New York: Macmillan/McGraw-Hill.

Cummins, J. (1984). *Bilingualism and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy*. London: Multilingual Matters.

Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In California State Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education (Ed.), *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework* (pp. 3-50). Los Angeles: California State University, Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center.

DeVillar, R., Faltis, C., & Cummins, J. (Eds.) (1994). *Cultural diversity in schools: From rhetoric to practice*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Dianda, M., & Flaherty J. (1995). *Effects of Success for All on the reading achievement of first graders in California bilingual programs*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.

Diaz, E., Moll, L., & Mehan, H. (1986). *Bilingual communication skills in classroom context processing*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Duran, R., Revlin, R., & Havill, D. (1995). *Verbal comprehension and reasoning skills of Latino high school students*. Santa Cruz, CA: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning. http://www.ncbe.gwu.edu/mispubs/ncrcdsll/rr13.htm.

Dubois, M.E. (1995). Lectura, escritura y formación docente. *Lectura y Vida, 16* (2) 5-12.

Echeverria, J. (1998). Preparing text and classroom materials for English-language learners: Curriculum adaptations in secondary school settings. In R. Gersten & R. Jiménez (Eds.), *Promoting learning for culturally and linguistically diverse students: Classroom applications from contemporary research* (pp. 210-229). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing.

Erickson, F. (1988). Ethnographic description. In J. von Ulrich Ammon, N. Dittmar, & K. Mattheier (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

Escamilla, K. (1994). Descubriendo La Lectura: An early intervention literacy program in Spanish. *Literacy, Teaching, and Learning, 1* (1), 57-70.

Fairclough, N. (1998). *Language and power*. London: Longman.

Fairclough, N. (1992). Discourse and text: Linguistic and intertextual analysis within discourse analysis. *Discourse and Society, 3*, 193-218.

Fashola, O.S., Slavin, R.E., Calderón, M., & Duran, R. (1996). *Effective programs for Latino students in elementary and middle schools: Hispanic Dropout Project*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

Fashola, O.S., Slavin, R.S., Calderón, M., & Durán, R. (1997). *Effective programs for Latino students in elementary and middle schools* (Report No. 11). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk.

Ferreiro, E. (1994). Diversidad y proceso de alfabetización: De la celebración a la toma de conciencia. *Lectura y Vida, 15,* (3), 5-14.

Focault, M. (1972). *The archaeology of knowledge.* New York: Harper & Row.

Focault, M. (1980). *Power/knowledge.* New York: Pantheon.

Freeman, Y.S., & Freeman, D.E. (1998). *ESL/EFL teaching: Principles for success.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Freire, P., & Macedo, D. (1987). *Literacy: Reading the word and the world.* South Hadley, MA: Bergin & Garfey.

Fullan, M., & Hargreaves, A. (1996). *What's worth fighting for in your school.* New York: Teachers College Press.

García, E. (1998). School reform in the context of linguistic and cultural diversity: Issues of equity and excellence. In M.D.R. Basterra (Ed.), *Excellence and equity for language minority students: Critical issues and promising practices.* Chevy Chase, MD: The Mid-Atlantic Equity Consortium.

García, G. (In press). The factors that place Latino children and youth at risk of educational failure. In R.E. Slavin & M. Calderón (Eds.), *Effective programs for Latino children.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Genesse, F. (1987). *Learning through two languages.* New York: Newbury House.

Gersten, R., & Baker, S. (1999). *Effective instruction for English-language learners: A multi-vocal approach toward research synthesis.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Canada, April.

Giroux, H.A. (1988). *Teachers as intellectuals: Toward a critical pedagogy of learning.* Granby, MA: Bergin & Carvey.

Goldenberg, C., Reese, L., & Gallimore, R. (1992). Effects of literacy materials from school on Latino children's home experiences and early reading achievement. *American Journal of Education, 100* (4), 497-536.

Goldenberg, C., & Sullivan, J. (1994). *Making change happen in a language-minority school: A search for coherence* (EPR No. 13). Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Goodlad, J.I. (1990). *Teachers for our nation's schools.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Goodman, K., Goodman, Y., & Flores, B. (1979 first printing; NCBE Web 1999). http://www.ncbe.gwu.edu/ncbepubs/classics/reading/index.htm.

Gonzalez-Edefeldt, N. (1994). A communicative computer environment for the acquisition of ESL. In R. De Villar, C. Faltis, & J.P. Cummins (Eds.), *Cultural diversity in schools: From rhetoric to practice*. New York: SUNY.

Green, J.L., & Dixon, C.D. (1993). *Talking knowledge into being: Discursive and social practices in classrooms*. Linguistics and Education, 5, 231-240.

Gutierrez, K., Larson, J., & Kreuter, B. (1996). Constructing classrooms as commnities of learners: Literacy learning as social practice. In P. Smagorinsky (Ed.), *Culture and literacy: Bridging the gap between community and classroom*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Hakuta, K. (1990). Language and congnition in bilingual children. In A.M. Padilla, H.H. Fairchild, & C.M. Valadez (Eds.), *Bilingual education: Issues and strategies* (pp. 47-59). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Halliday, M.A.K., & Hassan, R. (1985). *Language, context and text*. Geelong, Australia: Deakin University.

Hamayan, E., & Pfleger, M. (1987). *Developing literacy in English as a second language: Guidelines for teachers of young children from non-literate backgrounds*. Silver Spring, MD: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Hargreaves, A. (1997). *Rethinking educational change with heart and mind: ASCD yearbook*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Hudelson, S. (Ed.) (1993). *English as a second language: Curriculum resource handbook*. Millwood, NY: Kraus International.

Jensen, E. (1998). *Teaching with the brain in mind*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1988). *Student achievement through staff development*. New York, NY: Longman, Inc.

Krashen, S.D. (1986). Bilingual education and second language acquisition theory. In *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework*. Los Angeles: California State University; Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Lambert, W.E., & Calzabon, M. (1994). *Students' view of the Amigos program* (Research Report No. 11). Santa Cruz, CA: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Learning First Alliance (1998). *Every child readin,: An action plan*. Washington, DC: Author.

Levin, H.M. (1987). *Accelerated schools for disadvantaged students*. Educational Leadership, 44 (6), 19-21.

Lindholm, K. (1994). Promoting positive cross-cultural attitudes and perceived competence in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms. In R. De Villar, C. Faltis, & J.P. Cummins (Eds.), *Cultural diversity in schools: From rhetoric to practice*. New York: SUNY.

Lindholm, K.J. (1990). Bilingual immersion education: Criteria for program development. In A.M. Padilla, H.H. Fairchild, & C.M. Valadez (Eds.), *Bilingual education: Issues and strategies* (pp. 91-105). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Lucas, T. (1997). *Into, through, and beyond secondary school: Critical transitions for immigrant youths*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Lucas, T. (1993). What have we learned from research on successful secondary programs for LEP students? *Proceedings of the Third National Research Symposium on Limited English Proficient Student Issues: Focus on middle and high school issues*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs.

Luke, A. (1996). Text and discourse in education: An introduction to critical discourse analysis. *Review of Research in Education*, (21) 3-48.

Mace-Matluck, B.J., Alexander-Kasparik, R., & Queen, R.M. (1998). *Through the golden door: Educational approaches for immigrant adolescents with limited schooling*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Madden, N.A., Slavin, R.E., Farnish, A.M., Livingston, M., Calderón, M., & R.J. Stevens (1996). *Reading Wings: Teacher's Manual*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk.

March, L. (1995). The Spanish dual literacy program: Teaching to the whole student. *Bilingual Research Journal, 19* (3&4), 409-428.

McGroarty, M. (1989). The benefits of cooperative learning arrangements in second language instruction. *NABE Journal, 13* (2), 127-143.

McLaren, P. (1993). *Schooling as a ritual performance: Toward a political economy of educational symbols and gestures*. New York: Routledge.

McLaughlin, B., & McLeod, B. (1997). *Educating all our students: Improving education for children from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds*. Final Report for the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning, Volume I. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Medina, M. (1993). Spanish achievement in a maintenance bilingual education program: Language proficiency, grade and gender comparisons. *Bilingual Research Journal, 17* (1&2) 57-82.

Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons: Social organization in the classroom*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Merchant, H. (1979). Ghosts in the classroom: Unavoidable casualties of a principal's commitment to the status quo. *Journal of Education for Students Placed At Risk, 4* (3), 153-172.

Moll, L.C. (1992). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms. *Theory into Practice, 31* (2), 132-41.

Moll, L.C. (1988). Educating Latino students. *Language Arts, 64*, 315-324.

Montague, N. (1995). The process oriented approach to teaching writing to second language learners. *New York State Association for Bilingual Education Journal, 10*, 13-24.

Montero-Seiburth, M. (1999). *Review of the literature on Latino academic achievement from secondary to post-secondary education: Policies and trend into the new millennium.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal.

National Center for Education Statistics (1993). *Language characteristics and schooling in the United States, a challenging picture: 1979 and 1989.* Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.

National Coalition of Advocates for Students (1994). *Delivering the promise: Positive practices for immigrant students.* Boston: Author.

Olsen, L. (1994). *The unfinished journey: Restructuring schools in a diverse society.* San Francisco: California Tomorrow.

Ovando, C., & Collier, V. (1998). *Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching in multicultural contexts.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Padrón, Y.N. (1992). The effect of strategy instruction on bilingual students' cognitive strategy use in reading. *Bilingual Research Journal, 16* (3&4), 35-52.

Pellerano, C., Fradd, S., & Rovira, L. (1998). *Coral Way Elementary School: A success story in bilingualism and biliteracy.* National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. http://www.ncbe.gwu.edu/ncbepubs/discover/discover3.htm.

Poplin, M.S. (1993). Making our whole-language bilingual classrooms also liberatory. In J.V Tinajero & A.F. Ada (Eds.), The power of two languages: Literacy and biliteracy for Spanish-speaking students. (pp. 58-70). New York: Macmillan/McGraw-Hill.

Ramirez, J.D. (1992). Executive summary. *Bilingual Research Journal, 16* (1-2), 1-62.

Reid, E.M. (1989). *Exemplary center for reading instruction: Submission to the Program Effectiveness Panel of the U.S. Department of Education.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Roberts, C.A. (1994). Transferring literacy skills from L1 to L2. *The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, 13*, 209-221.

Rodriguez, R., Ramos, N., & Ruiz-Escalante, J. (Eds.) (1994). *Compendium of readings in bilingual education: Issues and practices.* San Antonio, TX: Texas Association for Bilingual Education.

Royer, J.M., & Carlo, M.S. (1991). Using the sentence verification technique to measure transfer of comprehension skills from native to second language. *Journal of Reading, 34* (6), 450-455.

Rueda, R., Goldenberg, C., & Gallimore, R. (1992). *Rating instructional conversations: A guide. Educational Practice Report, No.4.* Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Saunders, W.M. (in press). Improving literacy achievement for English learners in transitional bilingual programs. In R.E. Slavin & M. Calderón (Eds), *Effective programs for Latino children.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Sayers, D. (1994). Bilingual team-teaching partnerships over long distances: A technology-mediated context for intragroup language attitude change. In R. De Villar, C. Faltis, & J.P. Cummins (Eds.), *Cultural diversity in schools: From rhetoric to practice.* New York: SUNY.

Sharan, Y., & Sharan, S. (1992). *Group Investigation: Expanding cooperative learning.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Sharp, J. (1998, July). *Bordering the future: Challenge and opportunity in the Texas border region.*

Simich-Dudgeon, C. (1998). *Classroom strategies for encouraging collaborative discussion. Directions in Language and Education, No. 12.* Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Simich-Dudgeon, C. (1989). *English literacy development: Approaches and strategies that work with limited English proficient children and adults. Occasional Papers in Bilingual Education, No. 12.* Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T., & Cummins, J. (1988). *Minority education: From shame to struggle.* Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Slavin, R.E. (1999). *How replicable reform models can save America's schools.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, April.

Slavin, R.E. (1984). Component building: A strategy for research-based instructional improvement. *Elementary School Journal, 84,* 225-269.

Slavin, R.E., & Boykin, A.W. (1995). *Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk: Proposal.* Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education.

Slavin, R.E., & Fashola, O.S. (1998). *Show me the evidence! Proven and promising programs for America's schools.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Slavin, R.E., & Madden, N.A. (In press). Effects of the Success for All bilingual and ESL programs. In R.E. Slavin & M. Calderón (Eds.), *Effective programs for Latino children*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Slavin, R.E., & Madden, N.A. (1996, April). *Effects of Success for All on the achievement of English language learners*. Paper presented the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Slavin, R.E., Madden, N.A., Rice, L., & Calderón, M. (1996-1999). *Success for All Lee Conmigo: Manual del maestro edición en español, Volumenes I al IV*. Baltimore, MD: Success for All Foundation.

Slavin, R.E., & Madden, N.A. (1995, April). *Effects of Success for All on the achievement of English language learners*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Slavin, R.E., Madden, N.A., Dolan, L.J., & Wasik, B.A. (1996). *Every child, every school: Success for All*. New York: Corwin Press.

Snow, C., Burns, S., & Griffin, P. (Eds.) (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children*. Washington, DC: Committee on the Prevention of Reading Difficulties in Young Children, National Academy Press.

Stevens, R.J., Madden, N.A., Slavin, R.E., & Farnish, A.M. (1987). Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition: Two field experiments. *Reading Research Quarterly, 22*, 433-454.

Tharp, R.D., & Gallimore, R. (1988). *Rousing minds to life: Teaching, learning, and schooling in social context*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Thomas, W.P., & Collier, V. (1997). *School effectiveness for language minority students*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Tikunoff, W.J., Ward, B.A., van Broekhuizen, L.D., Romero, M., Castaneda, L.V., Lucas, T., & Katz, A. (1991). *A descriptive study of significant features of exemplary special alternative instructional programs. Final report and Volume 2: Report for practitioners*. Los Alamitos, CA: Southwest Regional Education Laboratory.

Tinajero, J.V., & Flor Ada, A.F. (Eds.) (1993). *The power of two languages: Literacy and biliteracy for Spanish-speaking students*. New York: Macmillan/McGraw-Hill.

Tollefson, J. (1991). *Planning language, planning inequality*. London: Longman.

UC Linguistic Minority Research Institute Education Policy Center (1997). *Review of research on instruction of limited English proficient students*. UC Davis. http://lmrinet.ucsb.edu/old/lepexecsum/execsumback.htm.

Valdés, G. (1997). Dual language immersion programs: A cautionary note concerning the education of language-minority students. *Harvard Educational Review, 67* (3), 391-429.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1987). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Walch, C. (1993). Becoming critical: Rethinking literacy, language, and teaching. In J.V. Tinajero & A.F. Ada (Eds.), *The power of two languages: Literacy and biliteracy for Spanish-speaking students* (pp. 49-57). New York: Macmillan/McGraw-Hill.

Warren, B., & Rosenbery, A.S. (1995). *"This questions is too easy!" Perspectives from the classroom on accountability in science.* Santa Cruz, CA: National center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Waxman H.C., de Felix, J.W., Martinez, A., Knight, S.L., & Padrón, Y. (1994). Effects of implementing classroom instructional models on English language learners' cognitive and affective outcomes. *Bilingual Research Journal, 18*(3-4), 1-22.

CRESPAR

Johns Hopkins University
Center for Social Organization of Schools
3003 North Charles Street – Suite 200
Baltimore MD 21218
410-516-8800 / 410-516-8890 fax

Howard University
2900 Van Ness Street, NW
Washington DC 20008
202-806-8484 / 202-806-8498 fax